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교육학 박사 학위논문

A Multilevel Analysis of the Effects
of Individual and Organizational Level Variables
on Perceived Employability
of Office Workers in Large Corporations

대기업 사무직 근로자의 고용가능성과
개인 및 조직 수준 변인의 위계적 관계

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Abstract

A Multilevel Analysis of the Effects of Individual and Organizational Level Variables on Perceived Employability of Office Workers in Large Corporations

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in the Graduate School of Seoul National University, Korea, 2016*

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The purpose of the study was to analyze the hierarchical linear relationship between perceived employability, individual characteristics and organizational characteristics of office workers in large corporations. More concretely, the goals of the study were as follows. First, to assess whether there is any difference in the level of perceived employability based on individual and organizational level variables; second, to examine the effect of individual-level variables on perceived employability; third, to examine the effect of organizational-level characteristics on perceived employability; and fourth, to examine the interaction effect of organizational-level characteristics on the relationship between perceived employability and individual-level variables. Individual-level variables were composed of: demographic characteristics (gender and age); job-related

characteristics (total work experience and turnover); positive psychological capital; proactive personality; social network capital; and openness to changes at work. Organizational variables included fairness in human resource management, supervisor feedback and organizational career management.

The survey was undertaken from November 1st to 19th 2015 with a target sample population of 640 people from 32 companies. Data was collected from 618 people belonging to 32 different companies (return rate of 96.6%) of which 522 data was retained for the final analysis (data validity of 84.5%).

The results showed that the overall mean score of perceived employability of office workers in large corporations was 3.59. In terms of the hierarchical linear modeling of perceived employability, individual and organizational-level variables, the following findings were found. First, a significant within- and between-group variance in perceived employability existed. Second, it was found that about 15.8% of the variance of perceived employability was between the different companies. Third, in the random coefficients regression model, it was found that psychological capital, social network capital, proactive personality, openness to changes at work as well as age (in the case of those below 30 and those between 30~40, with reference group set to those over 50) had a significant positive effect on perceived employability. Fourth, in terms of organizational-level variables, organizational career management was found to have a significant positive effect. Fifth, the analysis of the interaction effect revealed that supervisor feedback had a negative significant interaction effect while fairness in HR management had a positive significant interaction effect on the relationship between perceived employability and social network capital.

Sixth, individual-level variables accounted for about 55.78% of the within-group variance in perceived employability, while 89.83% of the parameter variation in perceived employability was explained by organizational-level variables after controlling the individual-level variables.

The major conclusions drawn from the study were as follows. First, the level of perceived employability of office workers in large corporations was revealed to be relatively high implying that these employees who are working in major companies leading the Korean economy had a certain level of competitiveness in the labor market. Second, male rather than female, workers holding a graduate level degree, those over 50 years old, deputy general managers, permanent workers, employees who had served the company for about 11~15 years, those who had accumulated a total work experience of around 11~15 years and employees who had moved to another company for about 1~4 times had reported a higher level of perceived employability. Third, the findings that major individual level variables were found to affect perceived employability are in line with other researches emphasizing the responsibility of individuals in the development of their competitiveness in the labor market. Fourth, the results support the idea that more efforts should be given to better elucidate the role of organizational-level factors in explaining perceived employability which had often been considered only at the individual level. Fifth, the results of this study provides an empirical evidence of the role organizations can play in promoting the level of employability of their employees which can be beneficial for the company.

The following recommendations for future research were suggested. First, a

more comprehensive approach can be adopted to better grasp which of the organizational-level factors might influence the level of perceived employability. Second, a more targeted sampling (employees belonging to the same department or team) could be recommended for future research seeking to undertake similar studies. Third, perceived employability could be studied with other individual-level variables that are particularly relevant in the workplace context such as work adjustment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Fourth, analyzing perceived employability in connection with career related issues will allow us to add a valuable layer to the rich field of study on perceived employability. Fifth, a more narrow focused analysis (focus on aged workers, women or newcomers) would be of significance in better grasping the dynamics and issues surrounding the concept of perceived employability.

Keywords: *perceived employability, Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM), office workers, large corporations*

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I. Introduction

A. Statement of the Problem

The dynamism of today's business world has dramatically altered the nature of employment relations between organizations and individuals. In the Korean context, this is especially striking within large corporations where workers can no longer expect life-long employment. The experience of the dramatic 1997 financial crisis which resulted in massive waves of mergers, restructuring and downsizing, has affected both the companies and workers who had only known constant growth and stability. The workforce, which was once central to propelling the rapid growth of the Korean economy in the 70s-80s, had to face an unexpected and disappointing fate with the rise of the new era. Globalization, technological advancement and the transition from a manufacture-based to a knowledge-based economy have resulted in early retirement, displacement and job shifts for many workers. These individuals who used to perform narrow and well-defined jobs are now expected to handle a wide range of tasks. More pressure is being placed on today's workers to appear competent and apt for possible new roles (Boswell, Ren, & Hinrichs, 2008). The ever-evolving business environment has affected the human resource management policy of corporations, which in turn is influencing the attitude and behaviors of workers. Organizations are increasingly looking for highly flexible workers to meet the fluctuating demands of the business market, while individuals are more than ever searching for ways to enhance their personal competitiveness (Van Dam, 2004). Such an ability to remain competitive and to

secure employment by satisfying labor market demands is referred to as employability. It is an important concept that is gaining much attention from policy makers, scholars and practitioners, and which certainly merits closer examination especially within the Korean context where related studies were found to be very limited in number.

Approaches in analyzing the employability issue vary between those attempting to identify the skills and competencies required to remain employed, and those focusing more on the psychological aspect by looking at possible factors that can influence the perception of employability. Identifying objective standards for employability is a worthy endeavor but reaches its limit in terms of generalizability across occupations and sectors. The perception of being employable is considered as important as actual employability (possessing the right skills and knowledge) (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). Perception of a situation is known to affect one's behavior, reactions, thoughts, and various authors have indeed advanced the importance of perceived employability, as workers are more likely to act upon their perceptions rather than upon any objective reality (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; De Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, Berntson, Witte, & Alarco, 2008; Van Emmerik, Schreurs, De Cuyper, Jawahar, & Peeters, 2012).

Studies related to perceived employability include those that focus on outcomes at the personal level such as well-being and health (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; De Cuyper, Van der Heijden, & De Witte, 2011; Silla, de Cuyper, Gracia, Peiró, & de Witte, 2009), or career success (Presti, & Pluviano, 2015; Wille, De Fruyt, & Feys, 2013), and others related to outcomes more relevant to organizations, such as increased performance (De Cuyper, Sulea,

Philippaers, Fischmann, Iliescu, & De Witte, 2014), competency (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004; Zafar, 2012) and organizational commitment (Van Dam, 2004).

While some have integrated variables related to organization or the labor market as a whole in their analysis (Berntson, 2008; Van den Broeck, De Cuyper, Baillien, Vanbelle, Vanhercke, & De Witte, 2014), it is rare to find any research proposing a multilevel approach to assess the interaction between individual and organizational characteristics in relation to perceived employability. Although employability is essentially regarded as the responsibility of the individual, it is also widely acknowledged that organizations have a significant role to play (Clarke & Patrickson, 2008). Indeed, employability is more than just having the necessary skills to enter the workforce, it is also about the abilities to “progress within an enterprise so as to achieve one’s potential and contribute successfully to enterprise strategic directions” (McLeish, 2002, p.2). The employees and the organization share a common responsibility to enhance employability (Brown, Hesketh, & Williams, 2003; Clarke, 2008; Clarke & Patrickson, 2008; Petersitzke & Hristozova, 2006; McQuaid, 2006) so a multilevel analysis of the relationship between perceived employability and individual and organization level variables for office workers would be of significance.

Such a study would be particularly relevant for office workers in large corporations as they encompass an extremely wide range of business areas. This implies that employees are more exposed to varying demands including division transfer, detached service in affiliate companies and overseas posting, not to

mention the daily work challenges they must face to keep up with an evolving and competitive market. Office workers in large corporations live under the constant pressure of renewing themselves in order to maintain their competitiveness within the organization. Indeed, the reality is that the majority of large corporations have abolished the remuneration system based on seniority to give way to a performance-based annual salary system. In other words, promotion and advancement are not guaranteed to everyone in large corporations. This implies that workers of large corporations have no choice but to constantly consider their competitiveness not only in their current organization but also in the labor market as a whole. Added to this, and even from the point of view of large corporations, the employability of workers is essential as it is closely linked to the employees' performance and other relevant positive outcomes.

This study seeks to shed light on the perceived employability of office workers in large corporations in Korea by undertaking a multilevel analysis using Hierarchical Linear Modeling on the relationship between perceived employability, individual and organization level variables.

B. Purpose of the Study

The study is intended to analyze the hierarchical linear relationship among perceived employability, individual characteristics, and organizational characteristics of office workers in large corporations in Korea. The purposes of this study are:

First, to determine the variance of perceived employability explained by

individual and organizational level variables of office workers in large corporations.

Second, to analyze the effects of individual level variables on perceived employability of office workers in large corporations.

Third, to analyze the effects of organizational level variables on perceived employability of office workers in large corporations.

Fourth, to analyze the interaction effects between perceived employability, individual and organizational level variables of office workers in large corporations.

C. Research Questions

To pursue the research goals, research sub-questions have been set as follows:

Research Question 1. Is there any difference in the level of perceived employability of office workers in large corporations depending on individuals and organizations?

1.1 How much do large corporations vary in the mean level of perceived employability of their employees?

1.2 How much do large corporations vary in the mean level of perceived employability of their employees after controlling for individual level variables?

Research Question 2. What are the effects of individual level variables on perceived employability of office workers in large corporations?

- 2.1. Do the individual level variables have significant effects on perceived employability of office workers in large corporations?
- 2.2. What is the proportion of variance in perceived employability attributable to individual level variables of office workers in large corporations?

Research Question 3. What are the effects of organizational level variables on perceived employability of office workers in large corporations?

- 3.1. Do the organizational level variables have significant effects on perceived employability of office workers in large corporations?
- 3.2. What is the proportion of variance in perceived employability attributable to organizational level variables of office workers in large corporations?

Research Question 4. What are the interaction effects of organizational level variables on the relationship between perceived employability and individual level variables of office workers in large corporations?

- 4.1. Do organizational level variables have a significant interaction effect on

the relationship between perceived employability and individual-level variables of office workers in large corporations?

D. Definition of Terms

1. Office Workers in Large Corporations

The office worker is defined as an employee who works in an office, especially one engaged in clerical or administrative work (Oxford Dictionary, 2015). The term ‘white collar’ is also widely used to refer to a person who performs professional, managerial or administrative work (Lee, Jyung, Na, Kim, & Kang, 2008). It is used in contrast to blue-collar workers whose job requires manual labor. Companies referred to as ‘large corporations’ are those that have been listed in the ‘top 1000 enterprises’ released by the Korean Chamber of Commerce and Industry (KCCI).

2. Perceived Employability

Perceived employability refers to the individual’s perception on his or her ability to maintain the employment. It includes the perception related to both the ability to maintain their competitiveness in the current organization as well as to find a new job if deemed necessary. In this study, it corresponds to the average point scored by the office workers in large corporations on the scale developed by Rothwell and Arnold (2007) measuring the perception of employability of worker who are currently employed.

3. Positive Psychological Capital

Positive psychological capital is defined as the positive psychological state of development characterized by a high level of hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience. In this study, it corresponds to the average score of office workers in large corporations in the 'PsyCap Questionnaire' developed by Luthans, Avolio, Avey, and Norman (2007). It is assessed as a whole since it is the combination of the four different elements that form the positive psychological capital.

4. Proactive Personality

A proactive personality is characterized by the tendency to engage in active role orientation and initiate actions to influence and improve the environment they live in. It corresponds to the average point scored by office workers in large corporations on the short form scale of 'Proactive Personality Scale' developed by Bateman and Crant (1993).

5. Social Network Capital

Social network capital is defined in this study as the breadth a person's social network within and outside the organization. More concretely, it refers to professional social networks that one has in the current organization they work for as well as outside of it. In this study, it corresponds to the average point

scored by office workers in large corporations on the scale developed by Eby, Butts and Lockwood (2003).

6. Openness to Changes at Work

This is defined in terms of the willingness of workers to support changes occurring in the organization and to have a positive expectation about what these changes could bring in the future. Here, it corresponds to the average point scored by office workers in large corporations on the scale developed by Fugate and Kinicki (2008) which assesses how open they are to organizational changes.

7. Fairness in Human Resource Management

Fairness in human resource (HR) management refers to the level of distributive and procedural justice in terms of human resource management. In other words, it refers to the extent to which the organization treats its employees in an equitable manner, especially in terms of the performance assessment and internal promotion system. In this study, it corresponds to the average point scored by office workers in large corporations on the scale developed by Oh (1996).

8. Supervisor Feedback

Supervisor feedback is the extent to which an employee receives useful

information and feedback from his/her supervisor, which is helpful in performing their work. Here, it corresponds to the average point scored by office workers in large corporations on the scale developed by Steelman, Levy and Snell (2004).

9. Organizational Career Management

Organizational career management is defined as the assistance provided by the organization to its employees to facilitate their career management including formal as well as informal practices. In this study, it corresponds to the average point scored by office workers in large corporations on the scale developed by Sturges, Guest, and Davey (2000).

E. Limitations

Potential limitations exist within this study. The participants of the study were office workers sampled from 32 large companies, listed by the Korea Chamber of Commerce and Industry (KCCI) as top 1000 enterprises in Korea in terms of market capitalization. The companies were selected through purposive sampling which implies that generalization might not be appropriate.

Another limitation comes from the method of sampling participants belonging to the same company. When collecting data from the same company, no restrictions were applied as long as the respondents were office workers, since the target population of the study was set to office workers in large

corporations. However, it has to be noted that as large corporations cover a wide array of business areas, the job characteristics and working climate could differ from one division to another. Such difference can be problematic, especially in assessing the respondents' perception of organizational-level characteristics. In other words, even if employees belong to the same company, they may have different judgements as to the general culture and policies of the company. Although the general culture would be the same, a 'sub-culture' could exist at the department or team level within the same company (Bate, 1992). This is a limitation of the study, and sampling limited to individuals within the same team for instance can be proposed for a greater coherence in the data.

II. Review of Literature

A. Perceived Employability

1. Definition of Perceived Employability

A person's employability, generally understood as the ability to be employed, is an essential question for the vast majority of people who will, at some point, seek to enter the labor market. Although long considered a key concept, it has gained even greater attention as the dynamism of the labor market continues to grow more complex, with long-term employment becoming scarce. The concept of employability has gradually evolved to become relevant both for currently employed as well as unemployed individuals, thus encompassing all categories of people in the labor market.

In the beginning of the 20th century, employability was mainly a question of identifying those who were suitable for work based on whether they were young enough, sufficiently healthy and had no family constraints (Gazier, 1997). During the 1960s, the concept broadened and diversified, with special consideration given to disabled and disadvantaged people, along with the emergence of a macro-economically oriented approach focused on the probability and necessary time related to finding a job, thus incorporating contextual elements in analyzing people's employability (Berntson, 2008). Since the 1990s, the concept further expanded to encompass everyone in the labor market, that is, those who are currently employed as well as those who are seeking a job.

Indeed, as “lifetime employment” with a single employer became irrelevant for the majority of the working population (Bridges, 1994), focus shifted onto how well people can maintain their competitiveness in the labor market based on their individual capacities and abilities (Forrier & Sels, 2003; Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004). Added to this, other contextual factors such as the general situation of the labor market, government and company training policies etc. had been incorporated in the consideration of employability, thus recognizing the shared responsibility of the individual, government and employer (Grip, Loo, & Sanders, 2004). As such, nowadays the concept of employability encompasses an interactive aspect (between individual and contextual factors). Also, it is no longer restricted to the idea of simply finding a new job but is interpreted in a broader sense, with the focus on one’s competitiveness in the labor market as a whole (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008; Sanders & De Grip, 2004; Sersic & Tomas, 2014).

Employability has often been treated at the macro level of the labor market, with reference to related governmental policies (Berntson & Marklund, 2007). Within this macro level approach, the focus of the discussion on employability usually involves matching the demand side with the supply side of the labor market. More precisely, it relates to ‘objective’ employability based on objective indicators linked to human capital, or career indicators such as education, training, occupational position or the number of job changes. To complement the objective view of employability, there appeared the concept of subjective or self-perceived employability with the individual at the center of attention. Here, employability is viewed with regards to the individual’s own perception, in other words, what the individual thinks of his or her ability to remain employable

(Forrier & Sels, 2003). It has to be noted that a high level of perceived employability would not necessarily ensure employment as it is based on a subjective evaluation of the situation, but it is widely recognized that it can enhance an individual's likelihood of gaining employment (Fugate et al., 2004), and many have argued that perceived employability can be more relevant than objective employability in various situations (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; De Cuyper et al., 2008).

A number of authors have indeed advanced the importance of perceived employability as workers are more likely to act upon their perceptions rather than upon any objective reality (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; De Cuyper et al., 2008; Van Emmerik et al., 2012). Their views are based on the basic assumption, widely accepted in the field of social sciences, that the way people interpret reality determines their feelings and behaviors (Silla et al., 2009). For instance, even if the employability level of an individual is high according to objective indicators (such as training or work experience), if the person does not perceive himself or herself as highly employable, the resulting feeling and behaviors will be congruent with the negative interpretation of reality. In other words, perceived employability could be more important because it is the perception of a situation rather than the actual situation or reality itself that affect behavior, feelings and thoughts (Berntson, 2008).

However, confusion exists as to the definition of perceived employability, not only because it has been referred to with different terms (employability, self-perceived employability, individual marketability, subjective employability, employability orientation), but mostly because it has been approached differently

depending on the population studied and on the focus of the analysis. Based on the various proposed definitions (see <Table II-1>), two major observations can be made with regards to how the approaches differ.

<Table II-1> Definitions of perceived employability

Author	Definition	A	B
Roskies et al. (1993)	The belief that one could find another job should the present one be terminated.		●
Hillage & Pollard (1998)	The capacity to move self-sufficiently within the labour market to realize potential through sustainable employment.	●	●
Kluytmans & Ott (1999)	The willingness of an employee to adapt to changes in the job contents and location (willingness) and the extent in which the know-how and skills can be applied outside the organization (ability).	●	●
Rothwell & Arnold (2004)	The ability to keep the job one has or to get the job one desires.	●	●
Grip et al. (2004)	The capacity and willingness of workers to remain attractive for the labor market (supply factors), by reacting to and anticipating changes in tasks and work environment (demand factors), facilitated by the human resource development instruments available to them (institutions).	●	●
Fugate et al. (2004)	A form of work-specific active adaptability that enable workers to identify and realize career opportunities.	●	●
Sanders & De Grip (2004)	The capacity and the willingness to be and to remain attractive in the labour market, by anticipating changes in tasks and work environment and reacting to these changes in a proactive way.	●	●
Berntson et al. (2006)	It is defined as the individual's perception of his or her possibility to achieve a new job.		●
Fugate (2006)	A constellation of individual differences that predispose employees to (pro)actively adapt to their work and career environments.	●	●

<continued>

<continued>

Author	Definition	A	B
Petersitzke, & Hristozova (2006)	When it is viewed as an organizational concept, it refers to the degree of flexibility of a specific organization's staff with regard to placement. [...] But more frequently, employability has been discussed as an individual concept where employability refers to an individual's ability to either obtain or maintain a job.	●	●
Van Emmerik et al. (2012)	It concerns the workers appraisal of his or her ability to get a new job in the same organization or in a different organization.	●	●
De Cuyper et al. (2012)	It concerns the worker's perception about possibilities to obtain new employment. These possibilities can be perceived at the present organizational or at another organization.	●	●
Van den Broeck et al. (2014)	It concerns the worker's perceptions of employment opportunities that are readily available to him or her.		●
Vanhercke et al. (2014)	Individual's perception of his or her possibilities of obtaining and maintaining employment.	●	●
Presti & Pluviano (2015)	Individual's ability to gain initial employment, as well as to maintain it or to face rapid transitions between roles or even to obtain new employment if required.	●	●

Note

A: the ability to maintain the job in the current organization

B: the ability to get a new job in another organization

The first observation that can be made is that certain authors like Van den Broeck and colleagues (2014) who defined the term as “the worker's perceptions of employment opportunities that are readily available to him or her” (p.1905), do not consider the aspect of maintaining one's current job. In other words, the focus is on the ability to engage in job searching activities rather than on keeping the current job. Such difference of approach can result from the difference in population studied (e.g: in the case of students or job seekers, the main focus is only on obtaining a new job). However, as can be noted from

<Table II-1>, most authors refer to employability by encompassing the idea of maintaining the job in the currently employed organization. Even if not expressly mentioned in the definition, it can be inferred from the content of the studies that the authors were referring to employability by including both the idea of maintaining as well as obtaining a new job (Fugate et al., 2004; Fugate, 2006; Grip et al, 2004; Hillage & Pollard, 1998; Sanders & De Grip, 2004). This observation that employability is widely understood as both sustaining one job and getting a new job with another employer needs to be underlined. Indeed, it is commonly understood that employability only concerns obtaining a new job, thus misleading people to believe that it is a concept relevant only to job seekers or those preparing for a job transition. It is therefore important to point out and fully understand that employability is a much broader concept that applies to the majority of people in the labor market.

As a second observation, it can be inferred from the definition proposed by Rothwell and Arnold (2004), who are also incorporating the idea of getting “the job one desires” (p.25), that individual preference is being considered. This definition can be compared with the one proposed by Vanhercke and colleagues (2014) who simply mention the “possibilities of obtaining and maintaining employment” (p.594). The perception would differ depending on whether it is a question of obtaining any new job available, or rather of getting a specific job that one desires. Although the difference in nuance (job opportunities in general vs. desired job opportunities) might not be a critical one for the concept, it is nevertheless worth considering. The following paragraphs which consider for whom perceived employability is relevant and how distinctions are made can offer us further insight and clarification in better grasping the concept as a

whole.

First, perceived employability is relevant for various categories of people on the labor market and also throughout a career. Concerning the different groups, we can distinguish between those who are initiating their professional life (recent graduates), those who are currently employed, those who are currently working but seek to make a transition to a new job (those looking for job transition including retiring workers) and the unemployed (job seekers who have left other employment). As the concept encompasses both the idea of ‘obtaining’ and ‘maintaining’ employment, it is relevant to a wide population within the labor market. Concerning the individual career, perceived employability is critical in the phases of exploration, consolidation and maintenance as well as career transition (Vanhercke et al., 2014). When entering the labor market, employability concerns how individuals establish themselves within this market (exploration stage). Those who are currently employed are concerned with maintaining their employment by surviving processes of organizational change, which translates into their ability to remain attractive to their employers (consolidation and maintenance stage). Finally, when seeking to change job, the issue of employment once again gains vital importance (transition stage). All of this implies that the concept of perceived employability not only refers to actual employability (finding a new job) but also to the ability to maintain one’s job.

Second, the distinction between the various levels of perceived employability is often based on locus (internal labor market vs. external labor market) and the nature (quantity vs. quality) of job opportunities. The first distinction between internal and external self-perceived employability is the most frequently

discussed in related literature (De Cuyper, & De Witte, 2010; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007; Van Emmerik et al., 2012). Internal labor market perceived employability is often formed in relation to training and other growth and developmental opportunities provided within the organization, while external perceived employability is based on general skills and knowledge that can be relevant and attractive beyond the current organization (Van den Broeck et al., 2014). More exactly, internal perceived employability is closely connected to within-organization factors that will affect a person's level of employability in the same organization, while external perceived employability may be affected by external factors (job requirement of the labor market) as well as the individual's attributes in general. The second distinction is based on the quantity and quality of job opportunities. Quantitative perceived employability considers all possible job opportunities, while qualitative perceived employability is more concerned with whether the presented job opportunities are better than the present job (Vanhercke et al., 2014). While qualitative perceived employability implies an upward move in the perception of the individual, this does not necessarily mean a move up on the hierarchical ladder since the criteria can be based on the employee's preference (wage, status, job aspiration) or other work conditions (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2010), rather than the objective advancement in the company (like a promotion).

Besides the differences that exist in terms of to whom it is relevant and how it can be distinguished, the lack of consensus on an agreed definition of perceived employability seems to emanate from the bunching together of all antecedent variables when referring to the term. As noted by Rothwell and Arnold (2007), the inclusion of antecedents in the construct creates confusion as

to what ‘perceived employability’ itself is. For the sake of clarity, it would be useful to make a clear distinction with antecedents, and to focus on perceived employability *per se*. In other words, emphasis should be put on the actual perception of employability rather than on the elements that lead to such perception. While the approaches of different authors vary, they do converge on two basic ideas: that employability has to do with obtaining as well as maintaining one’s job, and that it implies employability in regard to both the internal and external labor market.

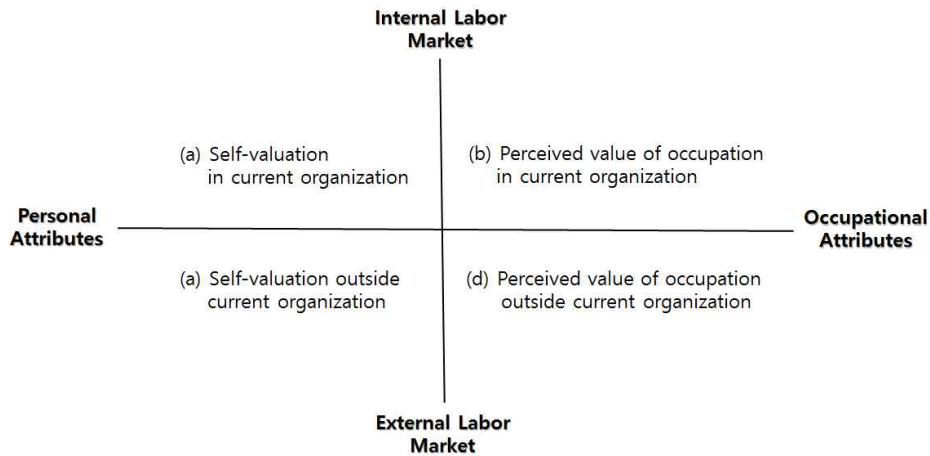
Based on the above observations drawn from the literature review and analysis of the various conceptualizations proposed to date, perceived employability is defined in this study as the individual’s perception on his/her ability to maintain the current job and find a new job if necessary.

2. Construct of Perceived Employability

Several authors have contributed in bringing clarity to the concept of perceived employability by making further distinctions between its various dimensions. As reviewed earlier, many have proposed a distinction between internal and external perceived employability (Kirschenbaum & Mano-Negrin, 1999; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007; Van den Broeck et al., 2014). Internal self-perceived employability is related to the ability to maintain one’s job in the current organization and survive in times of change (e.g. restructuring). More concretely, such employability is closely linked with the training provided by the organization or with work opportunities at the internal level, all of which contributes to competency development relevant for the company to which the

worker belongs. External self-perceived employability is the perception that one can also find jobs outside the current organization.

Starting from this distinction based on the two most common dimensions, other levels of consideration were put forward. With regards to internal and external perceived employability, Rothwell and Arnold (2007) have added two other levels of consideration: personal attributes and occupational attributes. The former relates to the individual attributes which a person possesses that influence the perception of employability in general. Occupational attributes refer to the organization's demands and other external factors related to the working environment. In other words, perceived employability is determined not only by the personal attributes that one possesses, but also by how much one perceives that he/she satisfies the organization's job requirements (occupational attributes). From this distinction of the elements used to evaluate influences on self-perception (internal vs. external labor markets; personal vs. occupational attributes), 4 dimensions have been proposed: ①self-valuation in the current organization, ②perceived value of occupation in the current organization, ③self-valuation outside the current organization, ④perceived value of occupation outside the current organization (see figure [II-1]).



[Figure II-1] Dimensions of perceived employability (Rothwell, & Arnold, 2007)

Source: Rothwell, A., & Arnold, J. (2007). Self-perceived employability: development and validation of a scale. *Personnel Review*, 36(1), 23-41

Rothwell, Herbert and Rothwell (2008) applied this distinction in their study on perceived employability of university students by adapting it to the context of the university. ‘Internal labor market’ was switched to ‘university’ while ‘occupational attributes’ was changed to the ‘field of study’ the student was pursuing. From this distinction, 8 dimensions were generated: ①engagement in studies and academic performance, ②perception of the strength of the university’s brand, ③reputation of the university in the related field of study, ④status and credibility of the related field of study, ⑤the external labor market’s demand for people in the related subject field, ⑥perception on the state of the external labor market, ⑦awareness of opportunities in the external labor market, and ⑧confidence in skills and abilities. As can be seen in [Figure II-2], each cell (dimension) is representing the interaction between 2 of the 4 elements of distinction (university vs. external labor market, self-belief vs. field of study). Although this study is based on university students, it is relevant in our study

as it joins the approach that views perceived employability in terms of competitiveness in the internal as well as external labor market.

University			Field of study
Self belief	(1) Engagement in studies and academic performance	(2) Perception of the strength of the university's brand	
	(8) Confidence in skills and abilities		
	(7) Awareness of opportunities in the external labour market	(6) Perception on the state of the external labour market	
External labour market			
		(5) External labour market's demand for people in the related subject field	

[Figure II-2] Dimensions of perceived employability of university students (Rothwell et al., 2008)

Source: Rothwell, A., Herbert, I., & Rothwell, F. (2008). Self-perceived employability: Construction and initial validation of a scale for university students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 73(1), 1-12.

Similarly, De Cuyper and De Witte (2010) have proposed two other dimensions in addition to the distinction between internal and external perceived employability. They introduced a distinction between all possible job opportunities (quantitative perceived employability) and better job opportunities (qualitative perceived employability). The combination of these two differentiation criteria results in a two-by-two table with 4 quadrants of perceived employability (See table II-2). ①Internal quantitative perceived employability concerns possibilities of getting another job within the same organization; ②internal qualitative perceived employability refers to the possibilities of getting a better job with the same employer; ③external quantitative perceived employability refers to the possibilities of getting another job with another employer; and ④external qualitative perceived employability refers to the possibilities of getting a better job in the external job market.

These are the dimensions proposed by the authors who have also found in their study that internal and external qualitative perceived employability are conditional upon internal and external quantitative perceived employability. In other words, employees who perceive themselves as having many employment opportunities also have a higher chance of perceiving as having better opportunities.

<Table II-2> Dimensions of perceived employability (De Cuyper, & De Witte, 2010)

Distinction	Quantity	Quality
Internal labor market	(a) Internal quantitative PE	(b) Internal qualitative PE
External labor market	(c) External quantitative PE	(d) External qualitative PE

Source: Adapted from. De Cuyper, N., & De Witte, H. (2010). Temporary employment and perceived employability: Mediation by impression management. *Journal of Career Development*, 36(1), 1-18.

The same authors previously advanced similar ideas by making a distinction between the internal vs. external market and lateral vs. upward employability (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2008). Upward employability corresponds to the quality aspect (getting better opportunities) but lateral employability does not necessarily imply a quantity aspect (having many opportunities). The interpretation is somewhat simpler as ‘lateral’ refers to maintaining the job (internal) or finding a job at a similar level (external), and ‘upward’ refers to the ability to advance within the organization (internal) or transfer into another job with better conditions (external). The ‘quantity’ component included in their subsequent work (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2010) might not be easy to measure as it is relative depending on the subjective evaluation of the individual.

Fugate (2001), who describes employability with a focus on the individual's ability to adapt personal factors to meet environmental demands, has identified 3 dimensions, namely personal adaptability, career identity, and individual-market interface. The rationale for proposing these three dimensions is that the ability to adapt to change situations is primarily determined by: characteristic differences that predispose individuals to engage in adaptive efforts (personal adaptability); the fact that career identity acts as the fundamental motive or driver for employability; and the need for individuals to interact with the environment in effective ways by demonstrating behaviors that would increase employability. Fugate and her colleagues (2004) subsequently put forward similar constructs with the difference being a switch from the initially proposed individual-market interface to social and human capital. Later, Fugate and Kinicki (2008) refined the notion by distinguishing the dimensions through more concrete factors: openness to changes at work, work and career resilience, work and career proactivity, career motivation, and work identity. The dimensions advanced by Fugate and her colleagues (2001, 2004, 2008) continue to evolve, creating a certain degree of confusion for readers. Rothwell and Arnold (2007) have also made the observation that the approach proposed by Fugate is too close to constructs like career decidedness, and have argued that the inclusion of individual attitudes would create confusion between employability *per se* and its attitudinal antecedents.

With a competence-based conceptualization of employability, Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) proposed 5 dimensions: ①occupational expertise, ②anticipation and optimization, ③personal flexibility, ④corporate sense, and ⑤balance. 'Occupational expertise' refers to professional knowledge and skills

(whether individuals perceive themselves as high performers); ‘anticipation and optimization’ involves preparing for future work changes in a personal and creative manner; ‘personal flexibility’ relates to the ability to adapt easily to all kinds of changes rather than merely showing flexibility at the content level of a job; ‘corporate sense’ can be compared to organizational citizenship behavior in a broader sense; and ‘balance’ is the ability to create compromise between the employers’ interests, work, career and the employees’ private interests. Similar observations can be made for this approach as to the possible confusion that can result: the conceptualizing is rather broad, encompassing a large array of sub-domains.

Kim (2009), who developed an instrument for diagnosing the employability of university students in Korea, deduced two dimensions of employability after a thorough review of competency, skills and attitudes relevant to university students in finding employment. The first dimension, ‘employment readiness’, includes goal establishment, information exploration, skills acquirement, and career preparation as sub-domains. The second dimension, ‘employability skills’, includes communication skills, resource-application skills, problem-solving skills and interpersonal skills.

Jeong (2014), who set out a system to assess the employability of unemployed vocational trainees in Korea, included 4 dimensions in the construct: ①job-hunting ability, ②job-hunting confidence, ③the demand recognition of the labor market, and ④the adjustment of employment expectation. As the study is concerned with job seekers, the dimensions are a reflection of aspects that are particularly relevant in job-hunting situations.

Most recently, Presti and Pluviano (2015) have proposed 4 dimensions: ① career identity and self-management, ②professional development, ③networking, ④environmental monitoring. They considered career identity to relate to the individual's ability to make sense of past work experiences and envision future work prospects in terms of what fits with his/her goals and values. Professional development refers to how much an individual engages in activities aimed at acquiring competencies and abilities that are relevant to their present and future work opportunities. Networking concerns attitudes and behaviors which help improve one's social capital gained through social relationships both inside and outside the current organization. Finally, environmental monitoring relates to information-seeking attitudes and other behaviors aimed at identifying labor market dynamics.

The synthesis of all of the dimensions identified by different authors can be seen in the following <Table II-3>:

<Table II-3> Dimensions of perceived employability

Author	Dimension	A	B
Kirschenbaum & Mano-Negrin (1999), Van den Broeck et al. (2014)	① internal self-perceived employability ② external self-perceived employability	●	
Fugate (2001)	① career identity ② personal adaptability ③ individual-market interface		●
Fugate et al. (2004)	① career identity ② personal adaptability ③ social and human capital		●
Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden (2006)	① occupational expertise ② anticipation and optimization ③ personal flexibility ④ corporate sense ⑤ balance		●
Rothwell & Arnold (2007)	① self-valuation in current organization ② perceived value of occupation in current organization ③ self-valuation outside current organization ④ perceived value of occupation outside current organization		●
De Cuyper & De Witte (2008)	① internal lateral perceived employability ② internal upward perceived employability ③ external lateral perceived employability ④ external upward perceived employability	●	
Fugate & Kinicki (2008)	① openness to changes at work ② work and career resilience ③ work and career proactivity ④ career motivation ⑤ work identity		●
Kim (2009)	① employment readiness ② employment skills		●
De Cuyper & De Witte (2010)	① internal quantitative perceived employability ② internal qualitative perceived employability ③ external quantitative perceived employability ④ external qualitative perceived employability	●	
Jeong (2014)	① job and job-hunting ability ② job and job-hunting confidence ③ demand recognition of the labor market ④ adjustment of employment expectation		●
Presti & Pluviano (2015)	① career identity & self-management ② professional development ③ networking ④ environmental monitoring		●

Note:

A: Construct based on the perception of labor market.

B: Construct based on the personal competency/attributes.

In summary, the dimensions and sub-domains proposed by various authors differ depending on the category of people studied and on the focus of the study. In terms of currently employed workers, the dimensions that take into account the employability within the organization (surviving, maintaining and eventually advancing in the same company) and outside the organization (finding a new job in the labor market) seem to be the most relevant. In addition to this, such a distinction between the perception of employability within the same organization and in the external labor market appears to be the most coherent and in line with the numerous existing definitions of perceived employability. Indeed, as observed in the previous section, the ability to maintain one's job (within the internal labor market) and to find a new job (in the external job market) are the most widely acknowledged basic characteristics. It can thus be concluded that proposing dimensions based on how a worker perceives himself/herself as marketable inside and outside the current organization seems to be the most clear and generalizable approach across all types of job or industry.

3. Studies Related to Perceived Employability

a) Antecedents of Perceived Employability

In order to better elucidate the concept of perceived employability, it is essential to look at studies exploring its antecedents and outcomes. Starting with studies on possible predictors of employability, we can refer to the work of McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) who proposed a holistic framework to analyze it by categorizing the relevant factors into individual factors (employability skills and

attributes), personal circumstances (household circumstances, work culture, access to resources) and external factors (demand factors, enabling support factors) (See <Table II-4>).

<Table II-4> Framework of employability (McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005)

Category	Components
Individual factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employability skills and attributes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Essential attributes - Personal competencies - Basic transferable skills - Key transferable skills - High level transferable skills - Qualifications - Labour market attachment - Work knowledge base - Demographic characteristics - Health and well-being - Job seeking - Adaptability and mobility
Personal circumstances	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Household circumstances <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Direct caring responsibilities - Other family and caring responsibilities - Other household circumstances • Work culture • Access to resources <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Access to transport - Access to financial capital - Access to social capital
External factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demand factors <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Labor market factors - Macroeconomic factors - Vacancy characteristics - Recruitment factors • Enabling support factors <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Employment policy factors - Other enabling policy factors

Source: Adapted from. McQuaid, R. W., & Lindsay, C. (2005). The concept of employability. *Urban studies*, 42(2), 197-219.

The framework proposed by McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) offers a

comprehensive overview of factors that influence employability and is of significance as it integrates both supply (individual) and demand-side (labor market) factors. However, while it is indeed considered to be the most complete, it seems to be too grounded in policy analysis (Presti & Pluviano, 2015). Adding to this, factors from the demand-side are mostly too reliant on the macro level (such as stability of the national economy or level of local labor demand), which is beyond the control of both the individual and the organization. Therefore, studies focusing on variables at the individual and organizational-level that are more directly relevant in the context of perceived employability have been reviewed.

Many authors advocate that factors related to one's knowledge and skills are of utmost importance when it comes to employability. Formal education and the possession of qualifications have been reviewed as having important influence on employability (Berntson et al., 2006; Kluytmans & Ott, 1999; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005), as have other skills such as occupational expertise, referring to the degree to which an employee believes his/her competence is suited to the given work (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006).

In addition to knowledge and skills, an individual's attitudes are another important individual-level factor that affects employability. Studies have shown that attitudes are crucial in the determination of one's behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). While there are numerous kinds of attitudes, those related to job-seeking are the most relevant in the context of employability. This includes attitudes towards flexibility (Fugate et al., 2004; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005) which were considered to have significant importance, especially during turbulent

moments (organizational change) (Berntson, 2008). Willingness to learn and willingness to change should also be listed among the antecedents of employability (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006), and willingness to be mobile was also supported by many authors as having influence on employability (Defillippi & Arthur, 1994; Kluytmans & Ott, 1999; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). Indeed, it has been proposed that those showing a willingness to move regard themselves as being more employable. Other attitudes that have attracted attention among researchers are related to career management. Fugate and her colleagues (2004) emphasize the importance of career identity, advancing the idea that an individuals' goals and future career aspirations would help determine how easy it is for them to get a job. Similarly, career management attitude and proactivity were considered as relevant in predicting employability (Berntson, 2008), along with career anchors which refer to the pattern of interests, abilities and motives that act as guiding forces for future career directions and decisions (Dam, 2004).

Social capital is considered as forming an important individual resource that can influence an individual's ability to find employment. Indeed, "social capital is an individual resource consisting of those contacts that are of value when finding employment" (Berntson, 2008). Fugate and her colleagues (2004) advance the role of social capital in which the strength and size of the personal network is important in the formation of employability. Smith (2010) also designated social capital along with human and cultural capital as key elements in enhancing employability, asserting that networking can be an instrumental activity for circulating information about oneself and finding jobs. Empirically, it was supported that, much like social network capital, networking and social

support affect employability (McArdle et al., 2007).

Dispositional factors are also commonly studied to explain how people perceive situations related to their employability. Neuroticism, affectivity, locus of control, self-esteem, optimism and other psychological factors were found to be relevant in forming a perception of a situation or an environment (Griffeth, Steel, Allen, & Bryan, 2005; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Spector, Zapf, Chen., & Frese, 2000).

Among organizational factors, support related to competence development and career management were the most frequently studied. Wittekind, Raeder and Grote (2010) found that organizational support for career and skill development represents a significant predictor of perceived employability, and similar observation was also made on the relationship between career development support and employability activities (Van Dam, 2004). Similarly, Nauta, Vianen, Heijden, Dam, and Willemsen (2009), who examined the impact of employability culture defined as the organizational culture which emphasizes the individual professional development and positive attitudes towards job changes, have found that it was positively associated with employability orientation. Factors related to the organizational work context such as job characteristics were also studied. Van Emmerick and colleagues (2012) found that feedback (extent to which results of the employee's work activities are provided), autonomy (freedom and independence in terms of carrying out work assignments) and variety (job requiring performing multiple tasks that involve a wide range of employee's skills and abilities) were all related to perceived employability.

<Table II-5> Antecedents of perceived employability

Level	Category	Factor
Individual	Knowledge & skill	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - formal education - possession of qualifications - occupational expertise
	Attitude	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - willingness to learn - openness to change - career identity - career management attitude - proactivity - career anchors
	Disposition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - neuroticism - self-esteem - locus of control - optimism
	Social capital	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - networking - social support
Organizational	Policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - support for career and skill development - employability culture - perceived organizational support - career development support
	Task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - autonomy - variety - feedback

The above review of research exploring the antecedents of employability provides an overview of variables that are of importance. The selection of independent variables for this study has been inspired by the literature review. While elements related to the current level of knowledge and skills one possesses have been reviewed as among the most important individual-level factors, this was not retained in our study as the implications would not be very meaningful for our target population (office workers in large corporations), which displays a similar level of education. From the list of factors pertaining to attitudes important for employability, it was observed that career-related factors take an important place. In regard to dispositional factors, the most significant were positive ones such as optimism. Social capital is a factor that

has also often been mentioned in the literature as an important predictor of perceived employability. Variables at the organizational-level could be distinguished between those related to the general atmosphere influenced by the policy and those related to the characteristics of a given task (see <Table II-5>).

b) Studies Related to Perceived Employability in the Korean Context

While the topic is at the center of political debate and societal focus in the Korean context, the related academic studies were found to be quite limited. Research related to perceived employability undertaken with Korean samples can be grouped into three types, according to the target population selected (students/job seekers/workers). The first category of studies includes those interested in university students, for instance looking at: how some specific competency (engineering core competency) could enhance the employability of students (Jeon, 2013); how the perceived social support influences the employability of university students (Park, 2015b); and developing an instrument to measure the employability level of students (Kim, 2009). The second category of studies is related to job seekers. It covers topics such as reemployment of retirees by looking at how characteristics of outplacement programs and the level of transformative learning affect their employability (Lee, 2012), or how psycho-sociological characteristics, career planning and characteristics of training programs influence the employability of job seekers (Jeong, 2014).

When it comes to research related to workers, some studies examined the concept of perceived employability from a broad lens (Bak, 2014; Kang, 2010),

while others have tried to focus on the link between career-related attitudes and perceived employability (Kang, 2015a; Kim, 2014; Oh, 2015). For instance, Bak (2014) proposed a comprehensive approach by looking at affective traits, cognitive traits, and social and human capital characteristics of workers that affect the level of perceived employability. In her study, perceived employability which was found to be slightly above average ($M=3.52$) was defined in terms of career motivation, career resilience and career proactivity. The results showed that apart from tenure and level of education, all variables including information-oriented identity, social networks, openness etc. were positively related to perceived employability, suggesting that various factors need to be taken into consideration. Similarly, Kang (2010), who measured perceived employability in terms of the internal and external labor market, using the scale developed by Rothwell and Arnold (2007), showed that growth needs and social networks positively affect the level of perceived employability of workers in large corporations.

Those who focused on the career-related attitude affecting the level of perceived employability of workers, all supported the rationale that those who engage actively in managing their own career have a higher chance of feeling more confident in maintaining their employment. Kang (2015b), who measured the level of employability using a questionnaire developed by the Korea employment information service (Oh & Yoo, 2008) with sub-dimensions composed of occupational conscientiousness, job exploration, employment skills, and employment resilience, found that career planning positively affects the employability of adults (both workers and job seekers) enrolled in lifelong learning universities. Kim (2014) and Lee (2015) also produced noteworthy

results by showing that protean career attitude has a positive effect on perceived employability. Protean career attitude encompasses two aspects (being self-directed and values-driven) and those with this attitude are usually described as flexible, learning from their experience and developing new required competencies on their own (Hall, 2004). Such findings suggest that individuals who have a clear sense of what they want to achieve through their career, and take appropriate measures in a proactive manner, will have a higher chance of feeling more confident and perceiving themselves as competitive in the labor market.

Finally, other studies set perceived employability as the independent variable to observe its effect on outcomes directly affecting the organization such as turnover intention (Kang, 2015a), job effectiveness (Seo, 2010) and organizational effectiveness (Choi, 2009a). Kang (2015a)'s study measuring the level of perceived employability in the external labor market showed that it had a positive effect on turnover intention and career-related learning. It has to be noted that in this case, perceived employability was considered only in relation to the external labor market, implying that the definition adopted was quite narrow. Meanwhile, Seo (2010) and Choi (2009a) found that the perceived employability of office workers had a positive effect both on job effectiveness and organizational effectiveness.

4. Theoretical Framework of Perceived Employability

Job Demands-Resources Model

The job demands-resources model (JD-R model) is based on the assumption

that every work environment is characterized by job resources and job demands, which can lead to increased work engagement or decreased wellbeing, such as emotional exhaustion, resulting in burnout and stress (Akkermans, Schaufeli, Brenninkmeijer, Blonk, 2013). Job demands refer to physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or mental effort and are thus associated with certain physiological and psychological costs (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001). Examples include high work pressure, an unfavorable physical environment and emotionally demanding interactions within the work setting (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006). Job resources refer to physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects of the job that are either functional in (a) achieving work goals, (b) reducing job demands, or (c) stimulating personal growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2001).

According to the model, job demands are not necessarily negative but they become so when they turn into job stressors in situations where adequate job resources are not available to satisfy them (Baker & Demerouti, 2006). The availability of job resources leads to an increase in employee motivation and results in positive outcomes such as organizational commitment and strong employee performance (Llorens, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2006).

The emphasis put on job resources in the JD-R model derives from the central idea of the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989), which states that the maintenance and accumulation of resources is the prime motivation of individuals. In COR theory, resources are defined as “those entities that either are centrally valued in their own right (e.g., self-esteem, close attachments, health, and inner peace) or act as a means to obtain centrally

valued ends (e.g., money, social support, and credit)” (Hobfoll, 2002, p.307). Here, resources represent anything perceived by the individuals as helping them attain their goals, or affecting their sense of their ability to successfully control and impact the surrounding environment (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014; Kirves, 2014). According to the theory, people employ key resources that they possess to conduct the regulation of the self, of their behavior, and to achieve their goals. The theory posits two principles. The first principle is that resource loss is incomparably more salient than resource gain, and the second principle put forward is that people need to invest resources in order to protect their resources and eventually gain new resources (Hobfoll, 2011).

In other words, the COR theory is based on the assumption that individuals will engage in behaviors that avoid resource losses and will invest resources in order to protect against resource loss, to recover from losses, and to gain resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014). This implies that individuals with more resources are better positioned for resource gain or maintenance, while those with fewer resources are more likely to experience resource loss. Similarly, the JD-R model assumes that the availability of job resources would result in the accumulation of resources which in turn would lead to positive outcomes (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007).

The JD-R model and COR theory all emanate from the stream of resource-based psychology which puts an emphasis on people’s resources and examines their impacts on human behavior and well-being in general. Key resources that have been widely studied and found to be linked to the

individual's well-being are aspects related to control (internal control, mastery, self-efficacy), dispositional optimism, self-esteem, and the degree of goal pursuit and social support (Hobfoll, 2002).

The logic and assumptions advanced by the JD-R model and COR theory are especially relevant in understanding the concept of perceived employability, since such perception results from a self-evaluation of the resources available to satisfy the requirements and expectation of the labor market.

5. Measures of Perceived Employability

Various instruments measuring perceived employability exist as the focus alters depending on the population studied (e.g., students, job-seekers, workers). In this section, only measures that have been used in the context of currently employed workers have been considered.

Rothwell and Arnold (2007) developed a measure called 'self-perceived employability' to assess the internal and external employability of corporate members in the UK. It is composed of a total of 11 items on a 5-point Likert scale with 4 items referring to internal employability (e.g. "even if there was downsizing in this organization, I am confident that I would be retained") and 7 items for external employability (e.g. "If needed to, I could easily get another job like mine in a similar organization").

De Cuyper and De Witte (2008) established a measure that took into account both the internal and external labor market as well as the qualitative side of employability, with 'lateral' referring to opportunities at a similar level

to the current job and ‘upward’ associated with getting promoted or finding a better job. The measure includes 4 items for each of the factors, giving a total of 16 items. Van den Broeck and her colleagues (2013) have adapted this measure in their study by taking one item from each of the 4 dimensions, but its use is currently limited as the original scale was developed in Flemish for a Belgian population. Van der Heijden (2002) also proposed a similar scale with a consideration of whether respondents believe that they can have a similar job in the same organization or elsewhere (internal/external lateral perceived employability), or get a different job with the current employer or another one (internal/external upward employability).

Others, like Fugate (2001) and Fugate and Kinicki (2008), have developed a scale dedicated to the assessment of perceived employability which has already been reviewed in the previous section; however, there is no consensus on the dimensions included (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). Indeed, the scales encompass a broad array of variables within each dimension (e.g. 3 concepts - positive career self-concept, learning motivation and career risk tolerance - are included under the dimension ‘personal adaptability’). Furthermore, in the case of scales developed by Fugate (2001) and Van der Heijde & Van Der Heijden (2006), their length (42 and 47 items respectively) needs to be considered before use as they may be too long for respondents.

For their part, Berntson & Marklund (2007) identified 5 items related to the respondents’ perceived skills (experience, network, personal traits, and knowledge of the labor market), while Eby, Butts and Lockwood (2003) developed a 6-item scale based on the work of Johnson (2001). The latter is composed of 3

items measuring perceived internal marketability and 3 items for perceived external marketability.

In the Korean context, several studies have used the translated scale of Johnson (2001) and Eby et al. (2003), notably Moon (2014) and others, who slightly altered the wording or length of the scale (Kang, 2015a; Seo, 2010).

The synthesis of perceived employability measures which are relevant to workers can be seen in the following <Table II-6>. In line with the observations made from the literature review, while the measures based on the labor market all converge in the consideration of the internal as well as external labor market, those that arise from a competency-based approach or dispositional approach all differ. In this sense, there seems to be a greater coherence in the conceptualization and measurement of perceived employability in terms of internal and external labor market.

<Table II-6> Measures of perceived employability

Scale (Author)	Items	Dimensions	Sample	Likert Scale	A	B
Fugate (2001)	42	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Career identity • Personal adaptability • Individual-market interface 	workers	5		●
Van der Heijden (2002)	8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internal lateral PE • Internal upward PE • External lateral PE • External upward PE 	workers	4	●	
Johnson (2001) Eby et al. (2003)	6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived internal marketability • Perceived external marketability 	adults	5	●	
Employability Scale (Van der Heijde & Van Der Heijden, 2006)	47	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Occupational expertise • Anticipation and Optimization • Personal flexibility • Corporate sense • Balance 	workers	6		●
Self-perceived Employability Scale (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007)	11	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internal employability • External employability 	workers	5	●	
Index of perceived employability (Berntson & Marklund, 2007)	5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • perceived employability 	adults	5		●
Fugate & Kinicki (2008)	25	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • openness to changes at work • work and career resilience • work and career proactivity • career motivation • work identity 	workers	5		●
Perceived Employability Scale (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2008)	16	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internal lateral PE • Internal upward PE • External lateral PE • External upward PE 	workers	5	●	

Note:

A: Measure based on the perception of labor market.

B: Measure based on the personal competency/attributes.

B. Relationship Between Perceived Employability and Individual-Level Variables

A number of studies have looked into variables at the individual level expected to predict the perceived employability of workers. Following a thorough literature review, a resource-based approach has been proposed in this study to better analyze the possible antecedents of perceived employability. It was inspired by the Job Demands-Resources Model, with its roots in the Conservation of Resources Theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which assumes that individuals with more resources are better positioned for resource gain or maintenance (positive outcomes). These approaches are particularly relevant in the context of perceived employability which results from the self-appraisal of one's ability to satisfy the job demands of the labor market. Resources that have been identified as relevant to employability are human capital, psychological and social resources.

First, the level of education as well as the working experience accumulated within and outside the current organization represent an important aspect of human capital. General job-related characteristics or experience (total work experience and number of turnover experiences) along with some demographic characteristics such as gender and age have been considered as relevant aspects of human capital.

Second, in terms of psychological resources, positive psychological capital (explained by the level of self-efficacy, resilience, hope and optimism), proactive personality and openness to changes at work have been considered. Those

factors are among the most widely accepted as influencing the employee's perceived employability.

Third, social network capital, which is considered an important source of information and affective support, has also been identified as an important factor to consider when analyzing the perceived employability of employees.

As individual-level variables, demographic characteristics, job-related general characteristics, positive psychological capital, proactive personality, social network capital and openness to changes at work will be analyzed as factors influencing the perceived employability of office workers in large corporations.

1. Demographic Characteristics

The demographic characteristics that will be considered in this study are age and gender. The literature review on perceived employability suggests that those two factors may be important elements in explaining how one perceives his/her ability to move forward in the current job and possibly also move to another organization. Starting with age, various studies have reported that as age increased, the level of perceived employability decreased. In their studies with a special focus on over-forties workers (Boerlijst, 1994; Boerlijst, & Van der Heijden, 1996), the employability (perceived possibilities for upward mobility or transition to another function) of employees of 40-46 was reported as being low to very low in half of the cases, and very low for the majority in the group with people of over 50. The observation that the employability of workers is progressively declining when entering the later stages of their career are often

explained by the existence of ageism or favoritism for younger workers in the labor market (Ahmed, Andersson, & Hammarstedt, 2012), by skills becoming obsolete (Van der Heijden, 2002), and by reduced training and development opportunities (Maurer, Weiss, & Barbeite, 2003) that may all influence how older workers perceive themselves as employable. Such results do not always prevail as some studies have reported no correlation between age and perceived employability (McArdle, Waters, Briscoe, & Hall, 2007; Ottino, 2010), or have at the contrary found a positive relationship between the two (Van Rooy, Alonso, & Viswesvaran, 2005). In other words, the study of Van Rooy and colleagues (2005) imply that the older the employees are, the higher their perception on employability. There has indeed been suggestions that growth potential or adaptability might promote the development of employability for older workers (Van der Heijden, 2002). In the Korean context, interestingly, Bak (2014) reported that the mean score of perceived employability of workers showed the following order from high to low in the age groups of 50s, 20s, 40s and 30s. In the case of Kim (2014)'s study, it was the group of workers in their 30s who scored the highest, followed by those in their 50s and over, 20s and 40s. Meanwhile, no statistical significance was found in both of the studies, implying that any generalization is difficult to make. Added to this, Kang (2010) reported a different tendency with the score of perceived employability gradually decreasing with age, making it even more difficult to propose any given assumption.

In terms of gender, several studies are suggesting that women have lower self-perceptions of their employability than men, and such difference has been statistically supported (Berntson, Sverke, & Marklund, 2006; Clarke, 2008).

Researchers often attribute these differences to the discrimination they may experience from the organization. According to Scandura and Lankau (1997), women are often stereotyped as focusing primarily on family and child-care issues and therefore less committed to the organization and their careers. In reality, for married women with children, family responsibilities may indeed limit their employability level (Clarke, 2008). As a consequence, organizations may offer less career opportunities for women (Lobel & St Clair, 1992). This glass ceiling that exists within the organization may affect how women perceive their own ability to move upward as well as their perception of competitiveness in the labor market. Nevertheless, this idea cannot be generalized as others have found no statistical relationship between gender and perceived employability (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). Meanwhile, in the Korean context, Bak (2014) reported that the mean score of perceived employability was higher for women ($M=38.20$, $SD=5.63$) than men ($M=37.22$, $SD=5.64$), but found no statistically significant difference. Similarly, Kang (2010) found that the mean score was slightly higher for women ($M=3.20$, $SD=0.07$) than men ($M=3.15$, $SD=0.03$), with no statistical significance found in the difference. Besides Bak (2014) and Kang (2010)'s studies that were done on office workers, Kim (2014)'s work on vocational counselors also found that women ($M=3.49$, $SD=0.65$) had higher level of perceived employability than men ($M=3.37$, $SD=0.95$).

Based on related literature review and transposing the results found in previous research on the reality of office workers in Korean large corporations, it can be expected that in line with other studies, women would perceive their level of employability higher than men. When it comes to the difference of the level of perceived employability based on age, no common tendency could be

observed in related studies. Considering the competitive environment of large corporations who have mostly adopted a performance based personnel management, it can be expected that the level of perceived employability will not increase gradually with age. In other words, older workers would be more likely to face various forms of pressure and challenges in terms of performance outcome and this would have a psychological consequence on one's confidence in his/her level of employability. Therefore, a negative relationship can be expected between perceived employability and age.

2. Job Related General Characteristics

Job-related general characteristics considered in this study are total work experience and number of turnover experience. These general factors related to an individual's job are expected to influence the level of perceived employability. For instance, in terms of total work experience, which is also closely related to tenure and age, it is proposed that those who have accumulated experience, seniority and skills in an organization will have obtained a better Person-Environment fit, thus exerting more job control (Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006). Such sense of job control would influence the extent to which one believes they will maintain their employment, especially with the same employer. Encel (1998) indeed reported that workers with greater seniority in the organization are considered by employers as possessing a range of positive qualities such as experience, deep knowledge and a strong work ethic. King, Burke and Pemberton (2005) also advanced that longer tenure implied an accumulation of more firm-specific skills.

Such qualities could positively influence individuals in terms of how they perceive their own competitiveness. Meanwhile, the results of other studies (Boerlijst, 1994; Boerlijst, & Van der Heijden, 1996) support another rationale for understanding the effect of working experience. In these studies, time spent in the current function and the chance of being given a different function in the near future (rated by the supervisors) were considered, in order to assess the level of employability. The observations were as follows: those who spent a short period on a given function (less than 2 years) were more likely to be given another function in the foreseeable future, while this probability completely diminished if the employee had held the function for over 7 years. This implies that benefits of seniority within an organization are two-sided: while skills and expertise are accumulated, the flexibility of work that can be performed may be reduced. Van Dam (2004) also reported a negative relationship between working experience and employability orientation of bank employees in the Netherlands. In the Korean context, Kim (2014) reported that the longer the worker had accumulated the experience in the same job, the higher the level of perceived employability. Meanwhile, Kang (2010) found that at the contrary, those with the lowest years of tenure (less than 5 years) had scored the highest in terms of their level of perceived employability. Job title can be considered in line with tenure as both are closely linked. For instance, Kang (2010) found that assistant managers and junior staff who represent the segment with the lowest years of tenure had the highest level of perceived employability. This corresponded the findings presented above from the same author (Kang, 2010) where those who had served the company for less than 5 years had shown the highest level of perceived employability.

When it comes to turnover or job transition experience, various authors suggest that it may enhance the level of perceived employability. Ortiz (1978) argued that individuals may become less flexible if they stay in the same job over time. Similarly, based on his research on midcareer transitions, Hall (1986) advanced that transitions across various roles and jobs can enhance the individual adaptability, which is in line with propositions by King and colleagues (2005) that mobility between jobs will lead to regular updating through new range of skills and knowledge acquired. O'Connell and colleagues (2008) also asserted that long-term employment in one single work site may limit developmental experience and emphasized the importance of being exposed to varying work situations and environments. Such individual adaptability, regular updating of skills and knowledge, and development experiences are important elements that would in turn lead to higher level perceived employability.

From the review of literature presented above and taking into account the general working atmosphere in Korean large corporations, the following hypothesis can be proposed. Workers with about 6~10 years of experience are expected to have a higher level of perceived employability. Those with about 6 years of professional experience represent the segment of workers in the Korean labor market who are usually highly valued by head hunters. In terms of turnover experience, it is expected that more opportunities of job transitions would provide greater chance of acquiring new knowledge and skills as well as gain confidence in his/her competitiveness in the labor market.

3. Positive Psychological Capital

Rooted in the movement of positive organizational behavior that places greater attention on an individual's strengths and what contributes to human flourishing, the concept of positive psychological capital (referred to as PsyCap) has been elaborated by Luthans and colleagues (Luthans, 2002; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2006) who identified four positive psychological resources of hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience. The four elements when combined, have been empirically determined to be a second-order core construct (Luthans et al., 2007), meaning that PsyCap as a whole accounts for more variance in important work outcomes than each of the constituents taken alone (Luthans, Youssef, & Rawski, 2011).

Hope, which is commonly used in everyday language, is more precisely understood in this context of work setting as a “positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-oriented energy) and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals).” (Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991, p. 287). In formulating the hope theory, Snyder based his assumption on the nature of people being generally goal oriented, following behaviors that will lead to the accomplishment of that goal (Snyder, 1994). Agency refers to an individual's capacity or motivation to initiate efforts to accomplish the set goal (willpower), and pathways represent the plans one sets to translate the goals into action. Those two components were determined by Snyder (2000) as comprising hope, which translates into the willingness to achieve a goal and the identification of various pathways leading towards this goal, including looking for another alternative when meeting a hurdle in

executing a chosen pathway.

Optimism, much like hope, both being common everyday terms, has a specific meaning when applied in positive psychology. Drawing from the attribution theory that assumes that people interpret behavior in terms of its causes and that these interpretations greatly affect the reactions to the behavior, Seligman (1998) defines optimist people based on how they perceive good and bad events. According to him, optimists make internal and stable attributions regarding positive events such as task accomplishment while for negative events, they attribute them to external, unstable and specific reasons. Carver and Scheier (2002) add to this notion of optimism the dimension of expectancy perspective: optimism is linked to the expectation that a desirable outcome will result from increased effort. In short, optimism is interpreted in positive psychology by positive future expectation and an attribution style where positive events are interpreted as a personal, permanent event while negative events are seen as situation specific and temporary (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011). It has to be noted that it is a realistic optimism that is implied here, where individuals make a realistic evaluation of their possible accomplishments (Luthans & Youssef, 2007).

Self-efficacy, which has been extensively dealt with especially by Bandura (1997), is defined in the context of the workplace as “the employee’s conviction or confidence about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources or courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context.” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998, p.66). Self-efficacy differs from optimism in the sense that it has to do with a specific task or context,

with a perception of one's personal abilities, whereas optimism is a general expectation of positive outcomes that is not necessarily connected to one's personal ability (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, & Peterson, 2010).

Resilience, which is interpreted in the field of positive psychology as positive coping and adaptation when facing critical situations, can be defined when applied in the workplace as the “positive psychological capacity to rebound, to ‘bounce back’ from adversity, uncertainty, conflict, failure, or even positive change, progress and increased responsibility” (Luthans, 2002, p. 702). It is interesting to note that adverse events can include positive ones, implying that resilience does not only refer to the ability to recover and move forward, but also to positive adaptation, including emotion and cognition.

Within the work context, it is expected that people with high level of psychological capital would have the tendency to interpret situations in a more positive manner. Indeed, it was advanced by Carver and Scheier (1994) that people with optimism are likely to perceive numerous opportunities in the workplace, view career changes as challenges and opportunities to learn, and persist in the pursuit of desired outcomes and goals (Carver & Scheier, 1994) which will foster employability. Added to this, self-efficacy is known to greatly influence one's perception of his/her ability and behaviors across situations.

Added to this, following the job demands-resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006) and the theory of conservation of resources (Hobfoll, 1989, 2011), positive psychological capital can be considered as forming a valuable resource for the individual in allowing the person to be more confident for advancement at the current work as well as for future job prospects. If positive

psychological capital is considered as a resource, the higher the level of PsyCap, the higher the chance for an individual to have a positive perception of the present and future situation related to employability. In this study, it is proposed that hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience all form an important psychological resource that can have positive influence on perceived employability.

Empirical evidence support that PsyCap is positively related to perceived employability (Chen & Lim, 2012). In regards to separate factors forming PsyCap, optimism was found to be positively related to perceived employability (Fugate et al., 2008; Griffeth et al., 2005; Kirves et al., 2014). Similar observations can be made for self-efficacy and resilience (Fugate et al., 2008).

4. Proactive Personality

Proactive personality is characterized as a disposition towards taking action, influencing one's environment to improve or create new circumstances (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 2000). Proactive people better identify opportunities and act in a proactive manner until they bring satisfactory change to their environment, while less proactive people tend to be passive, reactive and adapt to given circumstances rather than change them (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999).

The basic assumption that lies beneath is that people with proactive personalities are more likely to engage in proactive behavior (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). Crant (2000) further clarified the

concept by categorizing proactive behavior into general proactive behavior and context-specific proactive behavior. General proactive behavior includes broad categories of proactive behavior, such as challenging the current situation or creating favorable conditions by making suggestions even in the face of disagreement with others (voice behavior), or by taking charge and acting upon ideas (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Van Dyne & Le Pine, 1998). Context-specific proactive behavior refers to specific behavior that manifests in a precise domain such as career management, stress coping, innovation and socialization (Crant, 2000). While Crant (2000) proposed two categories of proactive behavior, Parker and Collins (2010) identified three higher-order proactive behavior categories which are proactive work behavior, proactive strategic behavior, and proactive Person-Environment (P-E) fit behavior. Proactive work behavior corresponds to behavior bringing change to the internal organization such as taking charge, making yourself heard, pursuing individual innovation (creation and implementation of new ideas) and problem prevention (anticipating and preventing work problems). Proactive strategic behavior is related to behavior aimed at creating change in the organization's strategies as a whole, such as strategic scanning (actively surveying the organization's environment) or issue selling credibility (calling an organization's attention to key trends and meaningful events). Proactive P-E fit behavior concerns behavior aimed at achieving greater compatibility between one's attributes and the organizational environment, such as feedback inquiry, feedback monitoring and taking career initiative. While such categorization has contributed to further clarifying the similarities, differences and interrelationships between various types of proactive behavior, some (like the proactive strategic behavior) are more exclusive to

those who can actually influence major decisions, such as the managers who were the sample of Parker and Collins (2010)'s study.

Meanwhile, it has to be noted that the construct of proactive personality is unique in that it has been found to be unrelated to locus of control (a person's beliefs about control over life events) and mental ability, and only moderately related to the need for achievement (one's desire to accomplish challenging tasks) and the need for dominance, characterized as one's desire for leadership (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 1995).

Within the work setting, it is suggested that proactive behavior is related to various positive outcomes. As proactive people have a tendency to take control over their work environment, they are more likely to adopt their own methods and even exert influence on important decisions affecting them. It has indeed been proposed that proactive individuals often select or create situations that can enhance the likelihood of high job performance (Crant, 1995). Thompson (2005) for instance found that proactive personality had positive effects on task performance (rated by supervisors), and Chan (2006) found similar results with overall performance (rated by supervisors). Bakker, Tims, & Derks (2012) also reported that employees with proactive personality were more likely to craft their jobs, that is to increase their structural and social resources as well as job challenges, which in turn predicted in-role performance (rated by colleagues) and work engagement (vigor, dedication, and absorption in work).

Besides job performance, proactive personality was found to be related to various other factors relevant in the work setting. Parker, Williams, and Turner (2006) reported that proactive personality was positively related to proactive

work behavior, via flexible role orientation (defining the role broadly and feeling ownership of goals and problems beyond their immediate task). It was also found that proactive personality was positively related to affective commitment to change, or desire to provide support for organizational change (Prabhu, 2007). Others have advanced that proactive personality had positive effects on organizational citizenship behavior, which refers to an individual's voluntary and discretionary behavior that is beneficial to the organization (Gan & Cheun, 2010; Fuller & Marler, 2009).

As such, proactive personality was found to be closely related to various kinds of positive behavior at work, which in turn is likely to influence how one perceives his/her employability. Related studies have indeed shown that proactive people are more likely to identify and act on work opportunities through self-improvement behavior. Empirical evidence also supports this link (McArdle, Waters, Briscoe, & Hall, 2007).

5. Social Network Capital

Social network capital is defined in this study in terms of the breadth of professional networks formed within and outside the organization. The concept of social network capital initially appeared in community studies which emphasized the importance of networks and personal relationships that form the basis for trust and cooperation in communities (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). It soon became a core concept in social sciences for analyzing the contribution of social factors within a wide variety of individual and collective behavior (Lin & Erickson, 2008). This approach highlights that individual and collective behavior

significantly depends on the social context in which such actions are embedded. The main idea proposed in the social capital theory is that networks of relationships constitute a valuable resource in achieving personal goals (Krause, Handfield, & Tyler, 2007; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). This joins the arguments of many scholars in the field of social science, who have long been discussing the relationships with others as a source of material, information and emotional aid (Borgatti, Jones, & Everett, 1998). As such, while there seems to be a common agreement on the significance of relationships as a resource of social capital that can help our understanding of various social phenomena, consensus on a precise definition of social network capital is still lacking. Some, like Baker (1990), limit the scope of the term to the structure of relationship networks, whereas others like Bourdieu (1986) and Putnam (2000), also include in their conceptualization of social network capital actual or potential resources that can be accessed through such networks.

Social network capital is a complex and multidimensional concept. We notice that, as Portes (1998) observes, social network capital is based upon the fundamental assumption that group involvement and participation can be beneficial to individuals and groups. It also has to be mentioned that many of the studies in this area, especially those dealing with aspects such as structure, pattern and the nature of ties, have mostly been dealt with in corporate research by notably applying network theory (Widen-Wulff & Ginman, 2004).

In the context of career studies, social network capital has also received important attention, more by focusing on the individual's perception and ability to integrate as an active member of a community, rather than on the dynamics

of the network itself, as has been the case in many corporate studies. Linked to issues such as career success, career attitude and behavior, social capital has often been treated as part of a career competency. It corresponds to the ‘knowing-whom’ level (beside the ‘knowing-why’ and ‘knowing-how’ capital) of the popular model proposed by DeFillippi & Arthur (1994), describing 3 levels of career competencies. The ‘Knowing-whom’ factor has been explained as consisting of a range of intra-firm, inter-firm, professional and social relations combined in a network (Dickman & Harris, 2005). Similarly, McNair (2009) employed a framework of 3 components—identity capital, human capital and social capital—where social capital is described as the ability to live as an active member of a community with others, and engaging in learning with others (Harris & Ramos, 2013).

In terms of the role of social network capital at work, many studies support the argument that professional relationships inside and outside an organization constitute a valuable source of information and support relevant to working life (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; Eby et al., 2013; Kong & Yan, 2014; Suutari & Mäkelä, 2007). Indeed, the information and influence one gets from social networks can provide individuals with access to career opportunities which are critical for achieving occupational aspirations (Burt, 1997).

The availability of such resources is believed to have influence on how people would behave in the workplace, especially during organizational change periods. It equips people with potential allies and mentors that a worker can solicit. While professional networks represent individuals who can bring direct and concrete support in terms of internal and external labor market

employability, personal social relationships can bring psychological support that not all professional acquaintances can bring. It has long been advanced that beside the material and informational resources that relationships provide, emotional aid also represents an important resource (Borgatti et al., 1998). The moral support which one can get from personal relations, as well as from peers at work, can reduce feelings of anxiety and stress that appear in the working context, which can have negative influence on perceived employability. As such, social network capital represents not only an important source of information but also of mental support (feelings of being backed by many allies at work), relevant to how a person perceives him/herself as being employable.

Various studies have indeed shown results empirically supporting the idea that social network capital has positive effects on perceived employability (Bak, 2014; McArdle et al., 2007; Park, 2013).

6. Openness to changes at work

Openness to changes at work is characterized by the willingness to support changes occurring in the organization and the positive appraisal of the potential consequences of those changes (Miller, Johnson, & Grau, 1994; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). It can be noted that the concept includes both a motivational aspect (willingness to support change) and an affective aspect (positive belief that the consequences resulting from changes will be beneficial).

It is closely related to the openness to experience which is one of the Big Five personality factors, with a focus on reaction to organizational changes

(Choi, 2011). In the literature related to the Big Five personalities, openness to experience is defined in terms of curiosity and the tendency to seek and appreciate new experiences and ideas (Gelissen & Graaf, 2006). In other words, people who are open to experience tend to be flexible, and perceive change as a challenge rather than as a threat (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). In this sense, openness to experience is closely linked to the openness to change at work, since such enthusiasm for novelty would foster favorable attitudes towards change in the workplace from employees (Miller, Jonson, & Grau, 1994).

In terms of factors that influence the openness to changes at work, it has been found that individual characteristics (such as self-esteem, optimism, perceived control, need for achievement) and context-specific factors (such as quality of information received about the changes, participation in the change decision process) predict a higher level of employee openness to changes (Miller et al., 1994; Wanberg & Banas, 2000).

Various authors have asserted that openness to changes at work is a “necessary initial condition for successful planned change” (Covin & Kilmann, 1990; Miller et al., 1994). In other words, those who show a high level of change acceptance and a positive view on changes at work are expected to better support and adapt to changes introduced by the organization. Such willingness to accept new challenges and policies imposed by the company would be essential in surviving and staying employed in the organization. It has been empirically supported that such openness does indeed have a positive effect on the perception of employability. For instance, Bak (2014) reported that openness to changes at work had a positive effect on perceived employability of

workers in Korea. Wille and colleagues (2013) also found that employability was positively related to openness to experience which includes characteristics such as being curious, broad-minded and having favorable attitudes toward learning.

From previous relevant studies presented above, it can be expected that openness to changes at work, which has been found to be related to various forms of adaptive behavior within the organizational change context, will affect the employability perceptions of workers.

C. Relationship Between Perceived Employability and Organizational-Level Variables

Various researchers have emphasized the role of organizational-level factors affecting the perceived employability of their employees (Brown et al., 2003; Clarke, 2008; Clarke & Patrickson, 2008; Petersitzke, & Hristozova, 2006; McQuaid 2006). For instance, in a comprehensive study on an employability development framework, Petersitzke and Hristozova (2006) advanced that providing guidance and counseling (mentorship programs, individual career guidance), assessment instruments (online test, 360 feedback), and information (career paths, labor market trends, skill requirements for positions in the organization), as well as offering various forms of training and development opportunities, are elements that employers can utilize to support individual employability. Clarke (2008) explains that a strong internal labor market can develop when the organizations prefer to use internal promotion rather than

external recruitment, are willing to provide training to their employees, and rely on those who have firm-specific skills. The different elements proposed to foster workers' employability were all related to fair treatment and growth opportunities that the organization can provide. Objective factors such as the sector or business industry, size and structure of the organization were rarely discussed in the literature. Fairness in personnel management, organizational career development support, and supervisor feedback were identified as the most commonly cited elements in the related literature. These are the organizational-level variables that have been selected in this study with the following assumption and rationale.

The way that organizations manage their personnel (fairness in personnel management) provides a good idea to employees as to the potential they have to evolve in the company. If an employee witnesses a discriminatory treatment in terms of performance evaluation and promotion, he/she is likely to lose faith in the organization. This is especially true if they see that their supervisors do not receive appropriate treatment, since they are often seen as the reference for the employee's own future prospects in the organization. Such internal policy on performance evaluation and promotion would certainly affect how one evaluates his/her chances of survival within the organization.

Providing adequate growth opportunities (organizational career management) is also an important element that can affect the perceived employability of workers. Through training and education provided by the organization, employees can develop the skills necessary to improve their performance. Providing assistance (formal or informal) for career development also influences the

affective commitment of employees, as it makes them feel that the organization cares about their well-being. Such growth opportunity and other forms of support are expected to influence the perception of employees, not only in regard to current competitiveness but also to their future advancement possibilities within the labor market.

In terms of factors that would have a more direct impact on employees' perception of their ability to maintain employment, supervisor feedback would be of great significance. The supervisor is the person who is most familiar with the strengths and weaknesses of the employee and who is in a position to evaluate them. The supervisor feedback represents the most accurate source of information on where one stands within the organization in terms of competency and expertise. The feedback received will have a great influence on the self-assessment of the employee in terms of their employability.

1. Fairness in Human Resource Management

Fairness in HR management refers to the supportive organizational practices in personnel management that recognize the contribution of employees in a transparent and coherent manner (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Lemons & Jones, 2001). This is often discussed within the context of organizational justice, which emerged with the widespread recognition of the importance of the fairness issue in organizations (Greenberg, 1990). Organizational justice is widely examined in terms of distributive justice and procedural justice.

Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness in the manner that

rewards are distributed within organizations. Here, the focus is on the content of the rewards, where equitable distribution will result in outcome satisfaction from the employees (Greenberg, 1990). It is often explained with reference to the Theory of Social Inequity (Adams, 1963) which advances that people compare perceived outcomes (rewards) from their work relative to perceived inputs (contribution), and compare this ratio with that of others at the similar level. According to the theory, the perception of an unfair distribution of rewards in comparison to input will lead the individual to adjust in order to create a more satisfactory equitable state, either by altering job performance (behavioral reaction) or by altering the perception of work outcomes (psychological reaction) (Hatfield, Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978).

Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of procedures used to make decisions regarding the distribution of rewards, with the focus being on the procedure, leading to a system satisfaction from employees (Greenberg, 1990). Procedural justice is comprised of two components: formal procedures and interactional justice. The term “formal procedure” designates the presence or absence of a fair distribution system, such as a mechanism identifying any decisional bias or errors. “Interactional justice” refers to the fairness of treatment the employee feels while following the formal procedure (Greenberg, 1990).

In terms of how each of the aspects of organizational justice (distributive and procedural justice) interact with each other, researchers have proposed the exchange framework to suggest that fair procedures also make a fair distribution of outcomes more likely (Lind & Tyler, 1988). In other words, the role of procedural justice is to enhance distributive justice (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993)

and this is probably why growing numbers of researchers have concentrated their studies on procedural justice (Lemons & Jones, 2001). Procedural justice can indeed be considered as being more important, since it has been found to have stronger effects on employees' attitudes to the organizations as a whole, in contrast to their attitudes to a specific outcome (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

Such organizational justice, especially at the level of human resource management, would greatly impact the extent to which employees believe they can survive in the organization and access the growth opportunities they deserve, or influence their decision to look for another employer that better guarantees such fairness in HR management. For instance, Folger and Konovsky (1989) found that procedural justice was related to organizational commitment and trust in management. This trust in management would be a determining factor as it directly influences the employees' perception of whether they will be fairly treated and thus remain employed in the same organization.

2. Supervisor Feedback

The role of feedback in organizations has long been studied and acknowledged as influencing both how employees behave and their perceptions within the work settings (Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008). Employees receive feedback from various sources such as their supervisor, co-workers, subordinates and others who work or are in contact with the employee (Morrison, 1993). For instance, Hackman and Oldham (1980) categorized feedback within the work setting into two types. First of all, the feedback from agents, which refers to "the degree to which the employee receives clear information about his or her

work performance from supervisors or from coworkers” (p.104). Second comes the feedback from others, which refers to “the degree to which the job requires employees to work closely with other people in carrying out the work activities (including dealings with other organization members and with external organizational ‘clients’)” (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p.104). Among the various sources of feedback, supervisor feedback is often at the center of interest, as many scholars have recognized it as an important resource, enhancing role clarity, increasing job satisfaction and reducing uncertainty for employees (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Whitaker, Dahling, & Levy, 2007). Various findings have indeed confirmed that a supportive feedback environment led by the supervisors can result in positive organizational outcomes, such as affective organizational commitment (Norris-Watts & Levy, 2004). As such, feedback from supervisors has been acknowledged to be beneficial for organizations as well as employees.

Meanwhile, not every feedback results in a positive response, and the nature of the feedback must be considered. Quality feedback should be given so that it gains an informational value, meaning that feedback needs to be consistent and useful (Herold, Liden, & Leatherwood, 1987). This implies that positive feedback should be delivered when the employee deserves a recognition for his/her contribution. Steelman and colleagues (2004) who developed the Feedback Environment Scale, defined favorable feedback as the “perceived frequency of positive feedback such as compliments from supervisors and/or coworkers when from the feedback recipient’s view, his or her performance does in fact warrant positive feedback” (p. 168). As such, providing meaningful quality feedback is essential.

Receiving deserved positive feedback is a way for employees to better understand what is expected of them and to reassess their competencies. Indeed, supervisor feedback can inform employees about their strengths and weaknesses. It represents an important form of counseling or mentoring which will help employees to better realize their competencies and interests, and which will then allow them to develop a career identity and foster career adaptability (De Vos, Dewettinck, & Buyens, 2008). Eraut (2007) also asserts that opportunities for receiving feedback are important factors in work-related informal learning.

All of these aspects of supervisor feedback are closely related to the level of employability an employee can perceive. For example, Froehlich, Beausaert, Segers, & Gerken (2014) found that supervisor feedback was positively correlated with employability. Furthermore, Hind (2005) emphasizes that employers should ensure that employees receive regular supervisor feedback so that they can accurately self-evaluate and therefore more realistically assess their own employability.

3. Organizational Career Management

The organizational career management or “organizational sponsorship” (Ng, Eby, Sorensen & Feldman, 2005), refers to the assistance provided by the organization to its employees in order to facilitate their career management and thus their career success. It covers various policies, practices and processes established by organizations to improve the career effectiveness of their employees (Orpen, 1994). The organizational support for career development comprises formal support such as career planning, training and assessment, and

informal support such as providing mentoring, coaching and assistance from senior-level employees (supervisor support) (Ng et al., 2005; Barnett & Bradley, 2007).

It shares similarities with the notion of ‘perceived organizational support’ which refers to employee belief that their organization values their contribution and are caring about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986). Elements that influence such perception are related to training, autonomy, job security and safety, recognition, pay, promotion, fairness and work conditions (Chinomona & Sandada, 2014). As such, perceived organizational support encompasses a larger array of support, while organizational support for career management is more focused on assistance directly related to employee career advancement.

Career development interventions commonly provided by organizations are numerous. Self-assessment tools such as vocational interest tests allow employees to reflect on their life roles, interests, skills, work preferences and career goals (Greenhaus, 1987). Some companies organize career planning workshops where participants can share opinions on career strategies and possible alternatives. Such settings can be an opportunity for employees to gain greater self-awareness and learn about career opportunities (Russell, 1991). Individual career counseling sessions are proposed to help employees examine their career goals based on their current job activities, performance and interests within the organization. Information services are also part of the career management support that can be provided by organizations. These include for example job-posting systems where new job openings, including promotion and transfer opportunities within the

company, are advertised internally. Such job-posting systems can bring additional motivation for employees who wish to achieve either an upward progression or parallel move within the organizational ladder (Hall, 1986). Putting at the employees' disposition a small library or a center equipped with career development materials (books, learning guides, self-study materials) is another form of informational assistance. Job rotation programs can enable employees to develop a broader range of skills by experiencing a variety of job duties (Russel, 1991). Mentoring between junior and senior colleagues or peers can also provide various career outcomes and can be particularly helpful when assisting, for example, women and minority employees (Russel, 1991). Finally, providing career development programs such as training and tuition-refund educational programs are typical forms of organizational support for career management.

In terms of how such organizational support for career development influences the perceptions and behaviors of employees, it has been found that providing adequate training, which helps employees develop their career, results in an increased organizational commitment (Sturges, Guest, Conway, & Davey, 2002). Adding to this, favorable organizational treatment, such as caring about employees' career development, is known to provide motivation for employees to put greater effort into performance (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005).

Empirical evidence also supports the idea that a positive relationship exists between perceived employability and organizational career management. Wittekind and colleagues found that support for career and skill development was a significant predictor of perceived employability (2010). Similarly, Dam

(2004) found that career development support from organizations had a positive effect on employability activities. De Vos, De Hauw, and Van der Heijden (2011) also found that organizational support for career development had positive effects on the perceived employability of white-collar workers in Belgium. In their study using panel data on Swedish adults, Berntson and colleagues (2006) found that factors related to knowledge and skills development, including competence development and other relevant opportunities, all positively predicted employability both during economic recession and prosperity periods.

D. Interaction Between Perceived Employability, Individual and Organizational-Level Variables

Employability can be described as both a relative and absolute concept (Brown, Hesketh, & Williams, 2003), as it cannot be determined solely by individual-level factors (Clarke, 2008). According to McQuaid (2006), employability is the outcome of a complex interaction between individual-level factors and internal as well as external labor market factors. The external labor market can refer to local, regional or national-level policy and economical situations surrounding the individual. However, the elements forming the external labor market are too many at the macro-level, making it difficult to grasp its direct impact. Given the significance of context in understanding perceived employability, organizations then becomes an important level of analysis (Clarke, 2008).

The interaction between perceived employability and individual and

organizational-level variables can be better understood through the concept of a 'new' psychological contract (Baruch, 2001; Clarke, 2008). While under the 'old' psychological contract, loyalty and commitment to the organization were exchanged for job security; under the 'new' psychological contract, it is implied that growth opportunities are accepted in place of long-term employment (Baruch, 2001; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). In other words, workers nowadays seek employers who can provide experience and other development opportunities, which can contribute to their employability. On the other hand, organizations also do this in order to attract and retain competent workers, since as they are no longer in a position to guarantee a long-term job. Indeed, as explained by Clarke (2008), the "underlying assumption of employability is that, even if organizations are not able to offer job security, they can offer opportunities for development to assist the individual in navigating the new, more tenuous, career paths" (p.271). An increasing number of scholars and practitioners agree that employability is now at the center of the new psychological contract, replacing the old paradigm based on mutual commitment (Baruch, 2001; Brown et al., 2003; Clarke, 2008; Clarke & Patrickson, 2008; Petersitzke, M., & Hristozova, 2006; McQuaid 2006).

Following this logic, the organizational-level variables should reinforce the relationship between employability and individual-level variables. Under this 'new agreement', both the individual and the employers share a responsibility to enhance employability, implying that the organization's contribution is essential in fostering the employees' employability. If an organization used to offer internal career opportunities as well as training and development, then individuals are likely to expect that they will continue to be rewarded and

treated the same way as long as they continue to meet their employer's requirements (Clarke & Patrickson, 2008). This implies that even if an individual possesses various resources and attributes (positive psychological capital, proactive personality, openness to change at work, social network capital) to positively perceive their employability, if the organization does not fulfill its duty, such positive perception would be affected. As advanced by Baruch (2001), the ability of the organization to offer a win-win situation is the most significant enabler of the psychological agreement, that is, in the reinforcement of the employees' level of employability. It is therefore expected that organizational-level variables (fairness in personnel management, organizational career development support, supervisor feedback) will positively moderate the relationship between employability and personal-level variables.

E. Summary

In this study, perceived employability was defined as the individual's perception on his/her ability to maintain the current job and eventually find a new job if necessary. Analysis of related studies revealed that perceived employability is a complex concept that is affected not only by individual characteristics but also by the environment, more exactly by the policies, cultures and practices embedded in the companies where the worker belongs.

At the individual level, demographic characteristics, job related characteristics as well as psycho-social characteristics represent the main elements that needs to be taken into consideration when explaining perceived

employability. In terms of demographic characteristics, in line with the results of the previous studies, age and gender were expected to have a significant influence on the level of perceived employability, with women showing a more positive perception on their level of employability than men, while a negative relationship is expected with age, meaning that the younger the employee is, the higher his/her level of employability. Concerning job related general characteristics, total work experience and turnover experience were expected to have an impact on the level of perceived employability. Having about 6~10 years of working experience were expected to represent the characteristics that would best predict perceived employability. Also, it was suggested that the more individuals have turnover experience, the higher their level of perceived employability would be. Finally, in terms of psycho-social characteristics, positive psychological capital, proactive personality, social network capital and openness to changes at work were expected to have a significant positive influence on the level of perceived employability.

At the organizational level the review of literature suggested that the general culture of the organizations, especially in terms of how supervisors treat their subordinates and how much the company puts effort in enhancing transparency in personnel management as well as in providing developmental opportunities to their employees, all represent elements that can affect how one perceives his/her level of employability. Fairness in HR management, supervisor feedback and organizational career management were selected as important factors that were expected to have either a direct or indirect effect on perceived employability. In other words, fairness in HR management, supervisor feedback and organizational career management are expected to positively affect the level

of perceived employability of the employees and at the same time act as positive moderator in the relationship between perceived employability and individual level variables. It is expected that in companies guaranteeing a higher level of HR management, where there is a general climate of supervisors giving feedbacks to their subordinates and are actively providing career management assistance, the effects of individual characteristics on how employees perceive their level of employability would be reinforced.

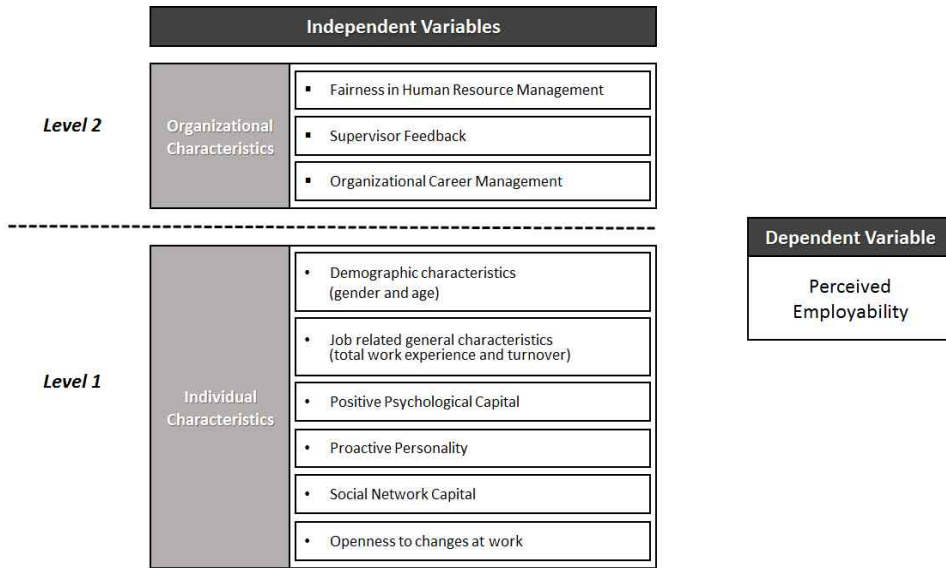
III. Research Methodology

A. Research Design

The purpose of this study is to examine the hierarchical linear relationship among perceived employability, individual characteristics, and organizational characteristics of office workers in large corporations in Korea. Individual characteristics is composed of demographic characteristics (gender and age), job related characteristics (work experience and turnover), positive psychological capital, proactive personality, social network capital and openness to changes at work. Organizational characteristics include fairness in HR management, supervisor feedback and organizational career development support (see [Figure III-1]).

As employees belong to different companies, they are nested within an organization, meaning that independent variables which are individual characteristics (level 1) and organizational characteristics (level 2) should be considered in terms of two different levels.

The HLM analysis will be used in this study following the methods presented by Raudenbush and Bryk (2002) and the details of the research design are as follows.



[Figure III-1] Variables used in the study

1. Null Model (One-way ANOVA)

In order to conduct a multilevel analysis, the first thing to check is whether there is a within- and between-group variance in the dependent variable. This precondition needs to be satisfied since perceived employability is hypothesized to be significantly related to both individual level variables and organizational level variables. It is assessed using a one-way analysis of variance with the null model with no independent variables at Level-1 or Level-2 which estimates the following equations:

$$\text{Level-1 : } Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + r_{ij}$$

$$\text{Level-2: } \beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j}$$

Y_{ij} : perceived employability
 β_{0j} : mean of perceived employability for group j
 γ_{00} : grand mean of perceived employability
 $r_{ij}=\sigma^2$: within-group variance in perceived employability
 $u_{0j}=\tau_{00}$: between-group variance in perceived employability

The one-way ANOVA provides information regarding the amount of variance in the dependent variable that is within and between groups. While the significance of the between-group variance is tested, the significance of the within-group variance is not tested. The resulting test should show that the between-group variance is significantly different from zero in order to conclude that the intercept term varies across groups. Added to this, the intra-class correlation (ICC) needs to be calculated using the following equation:

$$ICC = \frac{\tau_{00}}{\tau_{00} + \sigma^2}$$

τ_{00} : between-group variance

σ^2 : within-group variance

The ICC represents the percentage of the total variance in the dependent variable that is between groups. In other words, the ICC indicates the amount of variance that could potentially be explained by the Level-2 predictor (Wech & Heck, 2004), organizational level characteristics in this case.

2. Random-Coefficients Regression Model

The random coefficient regression allows us to test whether a significant

variance in intercepts across groups, and a significant variance in slopes across groups are found. The random coefficients regression model estimates the following equations:

Level-1 :

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y_{ij} = & \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(\text{positive psychological capital}) + \beta_{2j}(\text{social network capital}) + \beta_{3j}(\text{proactive personality}) \\
 & + \beta_{4j}(\text{openness to changes at work}) + \beta_{5j}(\text{gender}) + \beta_{6j}(\text{age1}) + \beta_{7j}(\text{age2}) + \beta_{8j}(\text{age3}) \\
 & + \beta_{9j}(\text{total work experience1}) + \beta_{10j}(\text{total work experience2}) + \beta_{11j}(\text{total work experience3}) \\
 & + \beta_{12j}(\text{total work experience4}) + \beta_{13j}(\text{turnover1}) + \beta_{14j}(\text{turnover2}) + r_{ij}
 \end{aligned}$$

Level-2 :

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + u_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{qj} = \gamma_{q0} + u_{qj} \quad \text{for } q = 1, 2, \dots, 14$$

Y_{ij} : perceived employability

β_{0j} : mean perceived employability for group j

β_{qj} : positive psychological capital, social network capital, proactive personality, openness to changes at work, contract type (reference group: permanent worker), gender (reference group: male), age (reference group: over 50), total work experience (reference group: more than 15 years) and turnover (reference group: more than 5 times) for group j

γ_{00} : mean of the intercepts across groups

γ_{q0} : mean of slopes across groups

$r_{ij} = \sigma^2$: Level-1 residual variance

$u_{0j} = \tau_{00}$: variance in the intercepts

3. Intercepts- and Slopes-as-Outcomes Model

First is assessed whether the significant variance at the intercepts found in the previous step is related to level-2 variables. Whether level-2 variables are

significantly related to the intercepts while controlling level-1 variables constant is assessed and the equation is as follows:

Level-1:

$$\begin{aligned}
Y_{ij} = & \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(\text{positive psychological capital}) + \beta_{2j}(\text{social network capital}) + \beta_{3j}(\text{proactive personality}) \\
& + \beta_{4j}(\text{openness to changes at work}) + \beta_{5j}(\text{gender}) + \beta_{6j}(\text{age1}) + \beta_{7j}(\text{age2}) + \beta_{8j}(\text{age3}) \\
& + \beta_{9j}(\text{total work experience1}) + \beta_{10j}(\text{total work experience2}) + \beta_{11j}(\text{total work experience3}) \\
& + \beta_{12j}(\text{total work experience4}) + \beta_{13j}(\text{turnover1}) + \beta_{14j}(\text{turnover2}) + r_{ij}
\end{aligned}$$

Level-2 :

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta_{0j} = & \gamma_{00}(\text{intercept}) + \gamma_{01}(\text{fairness in HR management}) \\
& + \gamma_{02}(\text{supervisor feedback}) + \gamma_{03}(\text{Organizational career management}) + u_{0j}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\beta_{qj} = \gamma_{q0} + u_{qj} \text{ for } q=1, 2, \dots, 14$$

- Y_{ij} : perceived employability
- γ_{00} : Level-2 intercept
- $\gamma_{01} \sim \gamma_{03}$: Level-2 slopes
- γ_{q0} : mean slopes
- u_{0j} : residual intercept variance
- r_{ij} : Level-1 residual variance

Then, to assess the interaction effect of organizational level variables in the relationship between perceived employability and individual level variables, the following equations will be tested.

Level-1 :

$$\begin{aligned}
Y_{ij} = & \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(\text{positive psychological capital}) + \beta_{2j}(\text{social network capital}) + \beta_{3j}(\text{proactive personality}) \\
& + \beta_{4j}(\text{openness to changes at work}) + \beta_{5j}(\text{gender}) + \beta_{6j}(\text{age1}) + \beta_{7j}(\text{age2}) + \beta_{8j}(\text{age3}) \\
& + \beta_{9j}(\text{total work experience1}) + \beta_{10j}(\text{total work experience2}) + \beta_{11j}(\text{total work experience3}) \\
& + \beta_{12j}(\text{total work experience4}) + \beta_{13j}(\text{turnover1}) + \beta_{14j}(\text{turnover2}) + r_{ij}
\end{aligned}$$

Level-2 :

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta_{0j} = & \gamma_{00}(\text{intercept}) + \gamma_{01}(\text{fairness in HR management}) \\
& + \gamma_{02}(\text{supervisor feedback}) + \gamma_{03}(\text{Organizational career management}) + u_{0j}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta_{1j} = & \gamma_{10}(\text{intercept}) + \gamma_{11}(\text{fairness in HR management}) \\
& + \gamma_{12}(\text{supervisor feedback}) + \gamma_{13}(\text{Organizational career management}) + u_{2j}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta_{2j} = & \gamma_{20}(\text{intercept}) + \gamma_{21}(\text{fairness in HR management}) \\
& + \gamma_{22}(\text{supervisor feedback}) + \gamma_{23}(\text{Organizational career management}) + u_{3j}
\end{aligned}$$

⋮

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta_{26j} = & \gamma_{140}(\text{intercept}) + \gamma_{141}(\text{fairness in HR management}) \\
& + \gamma_{142}(\text{supervisor feedback}) + \gamma_{143}(\text{Organizational career management})
\end{aligned}$$

B. Research Participants

The target population defined in this study are office workers of large corporations in Korea. The classification criteria of large companies varies by country and is usually based on the number of employees or the value of assets. In Korea, we can refer to the Small and Medium Enterprise (SME) Framework Act where the definition and scope of SMEs are defined. According

to this Act, a firm is classified as a SME if it employs more or less than 300 workers with a capital amounting no more than 80 billion Won. However different criteria apply depending on the industry, size of assets and capital of the company. As such there are some limitations in drawing an exact definition and classification of large corporations based on the SME Framework Act.

Another approach that can be adopted is to utilize the list of the ‘Top 1000 enterprises’ released by the Korea Chamber of Commerce and Industry (KCCI). KCCI which is the nation’s largest private economic organization, issues this ranking based on the total sales and assets of firms drawn from the most recently up-to-date domestic firm database covering around 500,000 firms. This study will use this list provided by KCCI and set the target population to those 1000 top firms of Korea.

As this study will apply the hierarchical linear modeling analysis, it is important to estimate the sample size accordingly, bearing in mind the main features of this technique. According to Woltman and colleagues (2012), HLM requires large sample size for adequate power especially when detecting effects at level-1. The sample size of both level 1 and level 2 needs to be considered. It is recommended to collect data from over 5 individuals (Bliese, 1998) and over 30 in terms of the sample of organizations (Klein & Kowlowksi, 2000).

It has to be noted though that with HLM, while missing data at level-1 (individual) can be handled, groups with missing data at level-2 are removed (Woltman et al., 2012). Also, higher-level effect are more sensitive to increases in group number than to increases in the number of observations per group (Woltman et al., 2012). For instance, Hofmann (1997) reported that a study with

30 groups with 30 observations each ($n=900$) can have the same power as 150 groups with 5 observations each ($n=750$).

Considering all the above-mentioned observations, the sample size for this study has been set to a total of 640 with a target of 20 observations in 32 groups. In order to administer the survey on 640 people, 32 corporations from the list of the top 1000 enterprises in terms of market capitalization were selected through purposive sampling, using a non-probability sampling method.

C. Measures

1. Perceived Employability

In this study, perceived employability is defined as the individual's perception on his or her ability to maintain the current job and also find a new job. It was measured using the scale developed by Rothwell and Arnold (2007). It is composed of 11 items on a 5-point Likert scale with 4 items on internal employability (internal labor market) and 7 items for external employability (external labor market). In the Korean context, it has been validated in the study of Kang (2010) on the relationship among employability, growth needs, supervisor's support and network of employees in large corporations. It is interpreted in terms of the mean of the total items: the higher the score, the higher the level of employability perception. The measure has been translated from English to Korean and revised by content specialists as well as a bilingual translator. The internal reliability of the scale was found to be .769 for the 11 items scale, with .586 for the items measuring internal employability (items 1, 2, 3 and 7) and .739 for those measuring external employability (items 4, 5, 6,

8, 9, 10, 11).

<Table III-1> Internal reliability of Perceived Employability Scale

Scale	Internal reliability (Cronbach's α)	
	Pilot test (<i>n</i> =72)	Main survey (<i>n</i> =522)
Perceived Employability	.794	.769
Internal employability	.547	.586
External employability	.847	.739

2. Positive Psychological Capital

The positive psychological capital was measured with the PsyCap Questionnaire developed by Luthans et al. (2007) and which is the most representative scale that has been validated in various cultures and also in Korea through numbers of studies. It is composed of 24 items with 6 items representing each of the four constructs of PysCap (hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience). While it was originally developed with a 6-point Likert scale, most of the studies undertaken in Korea have used the questionnaire on a 5-point Likert scale (Choi, 2009; Kim, 2013; Lee, 2014). The scale that has been translated by Choi (2009) was used in this study. The overall internal validity of the scale was found to be .909 with the reliability of each dimensions (hope, resilience, optimism, self-efficacy) ranging from .677 to .840. Item 13 measuring resilience, items 20 and 23 all measuring optimism were reverse coded.

<Table III-2> Internal reliability of Positive Psychological Capital Scale

Scale		Internal reliability (Cronbach's α)	
		Pilot test (<i>n</i> =72)	Main survey (<i>n</i> =522)
Positive Psychological Capital		.911	.909
	Self-efficacy	.841	.840
	Hope	.852	.820
	Resilience	.740	.729
	Optimism	.722	.677

3. Proactive Personality

Proactive personality which refer to the disposition toward taking action to influence one's environment to improve or create new circumstances (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 2000) was measured using the short form of the 'Proactive Personality Scale' (Bateman & Crant, 1993) that has been developed by Seibert, Crant, and Kraimer (1999). The original scale is composed of 17 items on a 5-point Likert scale while the shorter form comprises 10 items. Seibert and colleagues (1999) created the short version by selecting 10 items with the highest average factor loadings across 3 studies reported by the original authors (Bateman & Crant, 1993). This short-form scale that has been translated into Korean (Hong, 2012) has been used and validated by Nam (2014) and Park (2015a) in their studies done on office workers in large corporations in Korea who reported an internal reliability of .873 and .871 respectively. In the case of this study, the internal validity was found to be as high, with a Cronbach's alpha of .853.

<Table III-3> Internal reliability of Proactive Personality Scale

Scale	Internal reliability (Cronbach's α)	
	Pilot test (<i>n</i> =72)	Main survey (<i>n</i> =522)
Proactive personality	.854	.853

4. Social Network Capital

In this study, social capital was measured using the scale developed by Eby et al. (2003). It is composed of 7 items assessing the level of internal network and external network (4 and 3 items respectively) on a 5-point Likert scale. The Cronbach's alpha reported by the original authors was .93 for internal networks and .80 for external networks. This scale has also been adopted in the study of Colakoglu (2005) on MBA graduates where the revised scale showed acceptable reliability coefficients (.89 and .89 respectively). The scale was translated into Korean and revised by content specialists as well as a bilingual translator. The internal validity of the scale was found to be .839. The last item (item 7) was reverse coded.

<Table III-4> Internal reliability of Social Network Capital Scale

Scale	Internal reliability (Cronbach's α)	
	Pilot test (<i>n</i> =72)	Main survey (<i>n</i> =522)
Social Network Capital	.866	.839

5. Openness to Changes at Work

In order to measure the openness to changes at work, the scale developed

by Fugate and Kinicki (2008) was used. It is composed of 5 items (Likert 5) that have shown an internal consistency between .41 and .85 (.70 in average). The scale has been translated from English to Korean and revised accordingly to fit the purpose of the study. The internal reliability was found to be fairly high with a Cronbach α of .838.

<Table III-5> Internal reliability of Openness to Changes at Work Scale

Scale	Internal reliability (Cronbach's α)	
	Pilot test (<i>n</i> =72)	Main survey (<i>n</i> =522)
Openness to changes at work	.899	.838

6. Fairness in Human Resource Management

Fairness in HR management was measured using a scale that has been developed by Oh (1996). It is composed of 6 items on a Likert-5 point scale, of which 4 items refer to the performance evaluation while 2 others refer to the internal promotion policy. It has been validated in other studies with similar target population (office workers in large corporations) such as the work by Kim (2012) who reported the Cronbach's alpha to be between .59 and .79. Two items (item 3 and 4) that were negatively worded had to be reverse coded. The internal reliability of the scale was found to be .717 for the overall items.

<Table III-6> Internal reliability of Fairness in HR Management Scale

Scale		Internal reliability (Cronbach's α)	
		Pilot test (<i>n</i> =72)	Main survey (<i>n</i> =522)
Fairness in HR management		.748	.717
	Performance evaluation	.531	.534
	Promotion policy	.850	.788

7. Supervisor Feedback

The supervisor feedback was measured using 5 items from the 'Feedback Environment Scale' developed by Steelman, Levy and Snell (2004). The original text that was in English was translated into Korean. The translation has been checked both by a content specialist and a native speaker to make sure it fits the purpose of the study. Item 5 was reverse coded. The internal reliability of the scale was very high with a Cronbach's alpha of .874.

<Table III-7> Internal reliability of Supervisor Feedback Scale

Scale		Internal reliability (Cronbach's α)	
		Pilot test (<i>n</i> =72)	Main survey (<i>n</i> =522)
Supervisor feedback		.922	.874

8. Organizational Career Management

This study adopted the Organizational Career Management Scale developed by Sturges et al. (2000). It is composed of 2 dimensions which are formal practices and informal practices. 6 items represent formal practices while 4 are related to informal practices, giving a total of 10 items on a 5-point Likert

scale. This scale has been validated in the Korean context in the study of Hwang and Tak (2011) who assessed the perceived support for career management of office workers ($\alpha=.89$). The scale will be translated into Korean from English by a bilingual translator. It was translated back into English to refine the scale and produce the final version. The internal reliability of the scale was found to be .921 for the overall items and .876 for those measuring formal practices of organizational career management, and .879 for those assessing the informal practices.

<Table III-8> Internal reliability of Organizational Career Management Scale

Scale		Internal reliability (Cronbach's α)	
		Pilot test ($n=72$)	Main survey ($n=522$)
Organizational career management		.945	.921
	Formal	.916	.876
	Informal	.909	.879

<Table III-9> List of variables and instruments

Category		Variable		Item Number	Instrument	Total Items
Dependent Variable		Perceived Employability		I. 1~11	Rothwell & Arnold (2007)	11
Independent Variable	Individual Level	Demographic Characteristics		IX. 1~3	Developed for this study	3
		Job Related General Characteristics		IX. 4~8	Developed for this study	5
		Positive Psychological Capital	Self-efficacy	II. 1~6	Luthans et al. (2007)	6
			Optimism	II. 7~12		6
			Hope	II. 13~18		6
			Resilience	II. 19~24		6
		Social Network		III. 1~7	Eby et al. (2003)	7
		Proactive Personality		IV. 1~10	Bateman & Crant (1993)	10
		Openness to Changes at Work		V. 1~5	Fugate & Kinicki (2008)	5
	Organizational Level	Supervisor Feedback		VII. 1~5	Steelman et al. (2004)	5
		Fairness in HR Management	Performance Assessment	VIII. 1~4	Oh (1996)	4
			Promotion Policy	VIII. 5~6		2
		Organizational Career Management	Formal Support	VI. 1~6	Sturges et al. (2000)	6
			Informal Support	VI. 7~10		4
Total						86

D. Data Collection Procedure

Data for this study was collected through various methods in order to maximize the return rate of questionnaires. Most of the data was collected through electronic surveys by using programs such as Google Docs and online survey service provided by the Korean Social Science Data Center (KSDC) . The main benefits of administering the survey over the internet is the ease with which a large number of people from different geographic locations can be reached (Dillman, 2000; Schmidt, 1997). Also, electronic surveys offer the potential of achieving a higher response rates compared to traditional mail surveys (Dillman, 2000). Besides, potential entry errors can be limited as data from survey can be electronically imported into SPSS. This method can be considered to be the most efficient both for the researcher as well as the respondents who are more likely to cooperate as it is more convenient to answer. Paper printed questionnaires were also used when deemed necessary.

To make sure the data was collected from the same group, an internal cooperator was identified for each of the companies selected in this study. The surveys were given to the cooperator who then transmitted to their coworkers. The data was collected from November 1st to 19th 2015. The target sample population was 640 people from 32 companies. Data was collected from 618 people belonging to 32 different companies. This represents a return rate of 96.6%. However, data with missing information (name of company missing, unanswered items) as well as those with unreliable and overlapping answers were deleted, leaving 522 data for analysis (data validity of 84.5%).

The 32 companies that were considered in this study can be classified into

the following categories based on the Korean Industrial Classification Standard: manufacture (14 companies), construction (6 companies), information and technology service (3 companies), retail business (3 companies), electronic, gaz and waterwork business (3 companies), and finance and insurance (3 companies). As such, companies belonging to the manufacturing industry were the largest in number, representing around 45% of the 32 companies surveyed for this study, followed by the ones in the construction industry (18.8%).

The general characteristics of respondents that were considered for the analysis can be found in <Table III-10>.

Among the 522 respondents, 73.6% were male while women represented 26.4%. In terms of age, 64.6% were between 30 and 40 years old, 18.6% under 30 years old and 14.0% between 40 and 50 years old while those over 50 represented only 2.9%. A large percentage of respondents had a 4-year university degree (72.4%) in comparison to those holding a graduate degree (21.8%), 2-year college degree (4.6%) and those with a high school diploma or lower (1.1%). When it comes to job title, 31.4% had a title of assistant manager, followed by junior staff (29.7%), managers (24.3%), deputy general manager (10.0%) or higher than general manager (4.6%). The majority were permanent workers (94.6%) and in terms of tenure, 37.5% had been working for 3~5 years, followed by those who had been in the same company for 6~10 years, and people who had joined the organization less than 3 years ago (20.7%) while those who served for 11~15 years represented 7.1% and 8.8% for over than that.

<Table III-10> Descriptive statistics of the participants

Category		<i>n</i>	%
Gender	• Male	384	73.6
	• Female	138	26.4
Age	• Under 30	97	18.6
	• 30~40	337	64.6
	• 40~50	73	14.0
	• Over 50	15	2.9
Education	• High school diploma or lower	6	1.1
	• 2-year college degree	24	4.6
	• 4-year university degree	378	72.4
	• Graduate degree	114	21.8
Job title	• Junior staff	155	29.7
	• Assistant manager	164	31.4
	• Manager	127	24.3
	• Deputy general manager	52	10.0
	• Above general manager	24	4.6
Contract type	• Permanent worker	494	94.6
	• Temporary worker	28	5.4
Tenure	• Less than 3 years	108	20.7
	• 3~5 years	196	37.5
	• 6~10 years	135	25.9
	• 11-15 years	37	7.1
	• More than 15 years	46	8.8
Total work experience	• Less than 3 years	70	13.4
	• 3~5 years	181	34.7
	• 6~10 years	146	28.0
	• 11-15 years	65	12.5
	• More than 15 years	60	11.5
Turnover experience	• None	347	66.5
	• 1~4 times	168	32.2
	• More than 5 times	7	1.3
Total		522	100

The total work experience of the respondents corresponded more or less to their tenure with those with 3~5 years of experience representing 34.7% followed by 6~10 years, less than 3 years, 11~15 years and more than 15 years. Such results is linked to the turnover experience where it was found that 66.5% had never moved to another job and 32.2% had made job transitions 1~4 times while only 1.3% had done so more than 5 times.

E. Data Analysis Methods

The data collected in this study will be analyzed using the Windows SPSS 21.0 programme for the descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation) and the HLM 6.0 for Windows programme for the multilevel analysis of the hierarchical linear models.

The Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) is an analysis that has been widely acknowledged to better address the challenges of analyzing nested data, or more concretely, to examine relationship involving predictors at two or more levels and an outcome at a single level (Gavin, Hofmann, 2002; McLean, 2011; Osborne, 2000). The disaggregated analysis (level 2 variables are assigned to level 1) and aggregated analysis (level 1 variables are aggregated up to level 2) which are other methods of analyzing hierarchical data have been criticized for its limits as incorrect partitioning of variance to variables, dependencies in the data, and an increased risk of making a Type 1 error have been reported (Gill, 2003; Osborne, 2000; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002; Woltman, Feldstain, MacKay, & Rocchi, 2012). As such, HLM is considered to be ideally suited for the

analysis of nested data as it identifies the relationship between predictor and outcome variables by taking into account both level-1 and level-2 regression relationships (Woltman et al., 2012).

The HLM analysis will be used in this study to test the research questions through a sequence of the following models: the null model (one-way ANOVA), random-coefficients regression, intercepts- and slopes-as-outcomes model. The research questions and the corresponding models are listed in <Table III-11>.

<Table III-11> Research question and the corresponding analysis method

Research Question	Analysis Method
1 Is there any difference in the level of perceived employability of office workers in large corporations depending on individuals and organizations?	HLM Null Model (One-way ANOVA)
2 What are the effects of individual level variables on perceived employability of office workers in large corporations?	HLM Random-Coefficients Regression Model
3 What are the effects of organizational level variables on perceived employability of office workers in large corporations?	HLM Intercepts- and Slopes-as-Outcomes Model
4 What are the interaction effects of organizational level variables on the relationship between perceived employability and individual level variables of office workers in large corporations?	HLM Intercepts- and Slopes-as-Outcomes Model

IV. Results

A. Descriptive Statistics

1. Descriptive Statistics of Perceived Employability

Perceived employability had been measured using a scale of 11 items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The result of the descriptive statistics showed that the average level of perceived employability of office workers in large corporation is 3.59 out of 5 with a standard deviation of 0.48. In other words, respondents had answered in average between “neutral” and “agree”, meaning that the office workers in large corporations that had participated in the study were generally endorsing the statements related to their level of employability.

<Table IV-1> Descriptive statistics of perceived employability

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>
Perceived Employability	3.59	0.48	2.18	5.00

2. Descriptive Statistics of Individual Level Variables

The descriptive statistics of individual variables are as follows in <Table IV-2>. Demographic characteristics include gender, age, education while job related general characteristics include the job title, contract type, tenure, total work experience, turnover experience, and psycho-social characteristics include positive psychological capital, social network capital, proactive personality and

openness to changes at work.

<Table IV-2> Descriptive statistics of individual level variables

	Variable		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>
Demographic characteristics	Gender	Female	0.26	0.44	0	1
		Male	reference group			
	Age (years)		34.41	6.00	23.00	59.00
	Education	Lower than high school diploma	reference group			
		2-year college degree	0.05	0.21	0	1
		4-year university degree	0.72	0.45	0	1
		Graduate degree	0.22	0.41	0	1
Job related general characteristics	Job Title	Junior staff	reference group			
		Assistant manager	0.31	0.47	0	1
		Manager	0.24	0.43	0	1
		Deputy general manager	0.10	0.30	0	1
		Above general manager	0.05	0.21	0	1
	Contract type	Temporary worker	0.05	0.23	0	1
		Permanent worker	reference group			
	Tenure (years)		6.77	5.77	0.83	37.33
	Total work experience (years)		7.97	6.04	0.83	37.33
	Turnover experience		0.58	1.04	0.00	8.00
Positive psychological capital			3.82	0.47	2.38	5.00
Social network capital			3.60	0.53	2.00	5.00
Proactive personality			3.42	0.64	1.86	5.00
Openness to changes at work			3.71	0.57	2.00	5.00

Note: - Gender, education, job title and contract type are dummy variables (0,1) and the reference group were set to male, lower than high school diploma, junior staff and temporary worker respectively.

- The mean of the above mentioned dummy variables represents the percentage from the total sample.

In the case of demographic characteristics, the average age was found to be 34.41 years old while gender and educational level were dummy-coded (0 and 1) and where the mean represents the ratio of people that belong to that group. In terms of job related general characteristics, the average tenure of employees (6.77 years) was only slightly lower than the average total years of work experience (7.97 years), suggesting that the average participant had spent most of his/her professional career in the current organization. The average number of turnover experience was less than 1 time (0.58 time). Job title and contract type were dummy coded as well. Psycho-social characteristics included 4 variables that were measured on a 5-point Likert scale. The average score of respondents in the case of positive psychological capital was 3.82 which is the highest compared to other variables. The average score of openness to changes at work and social network capital were also above 3.50 with the scores 3.71 and 3.60 respectively. Finally, the level of proactive personality of the respondents was found to be 3.42 in average. All of these means imply that respondents had answered in average between “neutral” and “agree”, meaning that the office workers in large corporations that had participated in the study were generally endorsing the statements related to their level of positive psychological capital, proactive personality, social network capital and openness to changes at work.

3. Descriptive Statistics of Organizational Level Variables

The descriptive statistics of organizational level variables can be found below in <Table IV-3>. The average score that office workers in large corporations scored in the 5-point Likert scale of supervisor feedback was found

to be the highest among the variables at the organizational level ($M=3.61$). In the case of organizational career management, the mean score was 3.10 while the mean score for fairness in HR management was 3.01.

<Table IV-3> Descriptive statistics of organizational level variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>
Organizational career management	3.10	0.75	1.00	5.00
Supervisor feedback	3.61	0.73	1.20	5.00
Fairness in HR management	3.01	0.57	1.33	4.33

B. Level of Perceived Employability based on Individual and Job Related Characteristics

1. Level of Perceived Employability and Gender

Male respondents were found to score higher in the perceived employability scale with an average of 3.69 out of 5 compared to women who scored 3.50 in average. However such difference was not statically significant.

<Table IV-4> Level of perceived employability based on gender difference (t-test)

Group	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>
Male	384	3.69	0.51	2.545
Female	138	3.50	0.39	

Note 1 : * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$

Note 2 : $F=8.672$ ($p<0.05$)

2. Level of Perceived Employability and Age

In terms of age, it was found that the older the respondent was, the higher

their level of employability. The groups who were over 50 years old had the highest average score with 3.68, followed by those between 40~50 years old ($M=3.64$), 30~40 years old ($M=3.60$) and finally the ones who were younger than 30 ($M=3.48$). The result of the Scheffé test showed that the difference was not statistically significant.

<Table IV-5> Level of perceived employability based on age difference

Group	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Under 30	97	3.48	0.40
30~40	337	3.60	0.50
40~50	73	3.64	0.45
Over 50	15	3.68	0.51

3. Level of Perceived Employability and Education

The result of the one-way ANOVA analysis on the level of perceived employability based on the difference of education level showed that those holding an equivalent or lower than high school diploma had the highest level of perceived employability with a mean of 3.64. They were followed by those with graduate degree ($M=3.61$), those with a 4-year university degree ($M=3.59$) and finally those with a 2-year college degree. No statistical significance was reported for the difference between groups.

<Table IV-6> Level of perceived employability based on the difference of education level

Group	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
High school diploma or lower	6	3.64	0.48
2-year college degree	24	3.48	0.35
4-year university degree	378	3.59	0.48
Graduate degree	114	3.61	0.51

4. Level of Perceived Employability and Job Title

When it comes to the difference based on the position held within the organization, deputy general managers scored the highest on perceived employability with a mean of 3.79. Those who were in a higher position than general manager scored 3.66 while managers and assistant managers both had an average of 3.59 and junior staff, 3.50. According to the result of the Scheffé test, the difference of the average scored between junior staff and deputy general manager was statistically significant.

<Table IV-7> Level of perceived employability based on the difference of job title (one-way ANOVA)

Group	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	Scheffé				
					1	2	3	4	5
Junior staff	155	3.50	0.46	3.60*				*	
Assistant manager	164	3.59	0.49						
Manager	127	3.59	0.46						
Deputy general manager	52	3.79	0.53						
Above general manager	24	3.66	0.47						

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

5. Level of Perceived Employability and Type of Work Contract

Permanent workers who represented the majority of the respondents scored higher in their level of perceived employability ($M=3.60$) compared to those who were working with a short-term contract ($M=3.43$). Such difference was found to have no statistical significance.

<Table IV-8> Level of perceived employability based on the type of work contract (t-test)

Group	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>
Permanent workers	494	3.60	0.48	1.809
Temporary workers	28	3.43	0.41	

Note 1 : * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$

Note 2 : $F=2.918$ ($p<0.05$)

6. Level of Perceived Employability and Tenure

The mean score of perceived employability was found to be the highest for those who had spent between 11 and 15 years ($M=3.67$) in the current company, followed by those with more than 15 years spent ($M=3.64$) and those who had served between 3 and 5 years ($M=3.60$). Employees who had been working for the current company for less than 3 years had the lowest average score of 3.55 which is very close to the average score of those who had been there between 6 and 10 years. However the difference was found to have no statistical significance.

<Table IV-9> Level of perceived employability based on the difference of tenure

Group	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Less than 3 years	108	3.55	0.50
Between 3~5 years	135	3.60	0.50
Between 6~10 years	196	3.56	0.44
Between 11~15 years	46	3.67	0.51
More than 15 years	37	3.64	0.46

7. Level of Perceived Employability and Total Work Experience

In terms of the level of perceived employability based on the difference of the total years of work experience, like in the case of tenure, the ones who scored the highest were those who had a total of 11 to 15 years of working experience ($M=3.70$). They were followed by workers with more than 15 years of professional experience ($M=3.64$), and those who had been working for about 6 to 10 years ($M=3.60$). Finally, people with 3~5 years of experience scored an average of 3.56 while those with less than 3 years of working experience scored an average of 3.49. The difference between the groups was found to have no statistical significance.

<Table IV-10> Level of perceived employability based on the difference of work experience

Variable	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Less than 3 years	70	3.49	0.49
Between 3~5 years	181	3.56	0.49
Between 6~10 years	146	3.60	0.46
Between 11~15 years	65	3.70	0.48
More than 15 years	60	3.64	0.48

8. Level of Perceived Employability and Turnover Experience

Those who had experienced between 1 and 4 times of turnover had scored the highest in the level of employability with a mean score of 3.68. In the case of those who had changed their job more than 5 times, they had scored an average of 3.66 and those with no turnover experience had a mean of 3.54 and such difference between the two groups was found to have a statistical significance based on the Scheffé test.

<Table IV-11> Level of perceived employability based on turnover

Variable	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	Scheffé		
					1	2	3
None	347	3.54	0.47	5.008*		*	
1~4 times	168	3.68	0.50				
More than 5 times	7	3.66	0.47				

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

C. Relationship Between Perceived Employability, Individual and Organizational-Level Variables

1. Correlation Analysis

Before undertaking the hierarchical linear modeling to assess the relationship between perceived employability, individual and organizational characteristics, correlation analysis was undertaken to see whether the independent variables selected for this study were all correlated with the dependent variable. Pearson's r was used for the correlation analysis and the interpretation of the effect size was based on the standard proposed by Davis (1971). According to Davis (1971), a correlation coefficient of 0.70 or higher is considered as showing a very strong association; from 0.50 to 0.69 as showing a substantial association; from 0.30 to 0.49 as showing a moderate association, from 0.10 to 0.29 as showing a low association and from 0.01 to 0.09 as showing a negligible association. The results of the correlation analysis can be seen in <Table IV-13>.

Proactive personality ($r=0.549$, $p<0.01$) and positive psychological capital ($r=0.531$, $p<0.01$) were found to have substantial positive correlation with perceived employability. Social network capital ($r=0.483$, $p<0.01$), openness to changes at work ($r=0.423$, $p<0.01$) and organizational career management ($r=0.354$, $p<0.01$) were found to have a moderate positive association while supervisor feedback ($r=0.157$, $p<0.01$) and fairness in HR management ($r=0.147$, $p<0.01$) had a positive low association with perceived employability. In terms of variables related to demographic characteristics, gender (reference group: male) was found to have a negative low correlation ($r=-0.111$, $p<0.05$) with the

dependent variable, as was the case for age (reference group: over 50) in the case of those below 30 ($r=-0.102$, $p<0.05$). In terms of total years of work experience (reference group: more than 15 years), the case of the group with 11~15 years of work experience was found to have a positive low association ($r=0.091$, $p<0.05$). Finally, turnover (reference group: more than 5 years) was found to be correlated with perceived employability for both the group with no turnover experience that showed a moderate negative association ($r=-0.138$, $p<0.01$) and the group with 1~4 times of turnover experience ($r=0.134$, $p<0.01$) that had a moderate positive association.

2. Multicollinearity Test

Next, the multicollinearity test was also undertaken and the results (Table IV-12) were analyzed based on the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) which should be below 10 in order to conclude that no multicollinearity exists between the variables that were found to be correlated. In this case, all of the variables were found to be below 10, ranging from 1.495 to 2.393.

<Table IV-12> Multicollinearity test of independent variables

Variable	Tolerance	VIF
Positive Psychological Capital	.418	2.393
Social Network Capital	.607	1.647
Proactive Personality	.524	1.909
Openness to changes at work	.572	1.748
Organizational career management	.519	1.927
Supervisor feedback	.629	1.589
Fairness in HR management	.669	1.495

<Table IV-13> Correlation analysis of perceived employability and independent variables

#	(1)	(2)	(3)			(4)				(5)		(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
			3-1	3-2	3-3	4-1	4-2	4-3	4-4	5-1	5-2							
(1)	1																	
(2)	-.111*	1																
(3-1)	-.102*	.417**	1															
(3-2)	.037	-.210**	-.645**	1														
(3-3)	.047	-.129**	-.193**	-.544**	1													
(4-1)	-.076	.134**	.520**	-.284**	-.159**	1												
(4-2)	-.048	.038	.087*	.186**	-.294**	-.287**	1											
(4-3)	.016	-.006	-.232**	.381**	-.214**	-.245**	-.454**	1										
(4-4)	.091*	-.068	-.180**	-.060	.316**	-.148**	-.275**	-.235**	1									
(5-1)	-.138**	.002	.151**	.000	-.170**	.172**	.125**	-.046	-.236**	1								
(5-2)	.134**	-.004	-.139**	.022	.124**	-.163**	-.106*	.055	.175**	-.970**	1							
(6)	.531**	-.145**	-.161**	-.033	.181**	-.128**	-.146**	.040	.106*	-.048	.046	1						
(7)	.483**	-.093*	-.097*	-.067	.153**	-.088*	-.063	-.031	.065	-.062	.053	.535**	1					
(8)	.549**	-.092*	-.092*	-.004	.071	-.018	-.056	-.036	.057	-.048	.049	.628**	.536**	1				
(9)	.423**	-.142**	-.041	-.058	.082	.023	-.114**	.037	-.024	.047	-.030	.591**	.405**	.470**	1			
(10)	.354**	-.137**	-.099*	-.002	.076	-.040	-.086	.047	-.010	-.010	.016	.427**	.376**	.348**	.420**	1		
(11)	.157**	.008	.034	-.043	.007	.008	-.053	.081	-.066	.017	-.010	.344**	.171**	.173**	.372**	.531**	1	
(12)	.147**	-.146**	-.079	-.095*	.181**	-.025	-.121**	.067	.007	-.071	.072	.305**	.206**	.189**	.299**	.510**	.399**	1

Note 1: (1) perceived employability; (2) gender (reference group: female); (3) age (reference group: over 50): (3-1) below 30, (3-2) 30~40, (3-3) 40~50; (4) total work experience (reference group: more than 15 years): (4-1) less than 3 years, (4-2) 3~5 years, (4-3) 6~10 years, (4-4) 11~15 years; (5) turnover (more than 5 times): (5-1) none, (5-2) 1~4 times; (6) positive psychological capital; (7), social network capital; (8) proactive personality; (9) openness to changes at work; (10) organizational career management; (11) supervisor feedback; (12) fairness in HR management

Note 2: *p<0.05, **p<0.01

D. Null Model (One-Way ANOVA)

In order to analyze whether there exists a significant within- and between-group variance in perceived employability, a one-way ANOVA with random effect model (null model) was estimated. The results are as can be seen below in <Table IV-14>.

<Table IV-14> Results of the null model of perceived employability

Fixed Effect	Coefficient	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
Intercept (γ_{00})	3.587	0.040	90.508***
Random Effect	<i>SD</i>	Variance	χ^2
Between-group variance (τ_{00})	0.193	0.037	117.018***
Within-group variance (σ^2)	0.446	0.199	
ICC	0.158		

Note 1: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Note 2: Inter-class Correlation (ICC)= $\tau_{00}/(\sigma^2 + \tau_{00})$

The results indicate that the intercept for the mean of perceived employability is 3.587. The between-group variance is 0.037 while the within-group variance is 0.199. These variance components can be used to calculate the inter-class correlation (ICC) which reflects the proportion of variance in the outcome that is between groups. In other words, it represents the proportion of variance in perceived employability between the 32 companies surveyed in this study. The ICC result is 0.158, which implies that about 15.8% of the variance in perceived employability is between the 32 companies.

The result of the null model indicates that a significant within- and between-group variance in perceived employability ($\chi^2=117.018$, $p<0.001$) exist. Although a relatively small percentage of the variance in perceived employability resided between companies, as it was significant, it provided a basis for examining organizational level variables as well, in addition to individual level predictors.

E. Random-Coefficients Regression Model

After having confirmed that perceived employability of office workers in large corporations vary both within- and between groups, a random-coefficients regression model was set to find the effect of individual level variables on the dependent variable.

Based on the correlation analysis between perceived employability and related independent variables, it was found that all the independent variables at the individual-level from the demographic (gender and age—people under 30—) and job related characteristics (total work experience—between 11 and 15 years — and turnover) were correlated with perceived employability. These variables were computed in the model and the results are displayed in <Table IV-15>.

The results of the final estimation of fixed effects show that positive psychological capital ($\beta=0.211$, $p<0.01$), social network capital ($\beta=0.151$, $p<0.001$), proactive personality ($\beta=0.203$, $p<0.01$) and openness to changes at work ($\beta=0.110$, $p<0.05$) have a positive effect on perceived employability. In other words, office workers in large corporations with higher level of positive

psychological capital, social network capital, proactive personality, openness to changes at work and more experience of turnover show higher level of perceived employability. In terms of demographic and job related characteristics, only age, more exactly in the case of those under 30 ($\beta=0.240$, $p<0.05$) and those between 30 and 40 years old ($\beta=0.247$, $p<0.05$), it was found to have a positive effect on perceived employability. In this case, since the reference group for age are the ones over 50, the interpretation that can be proposed is as follows: compared to the group of workers over 50, those under 30 and those between 30 and 40 years old have on average a higher level of perceived employability by 0.24 point and 0.25 point respectively.

The results of the final estimation with random effect suggest that the between-group variance is statistically significant ($\chi^2=76.80$, $p<0.05$), implying that the effect of individual level variables on perceived employability vary between the 32 companies. The results of the random effect also provide the test statistics for the hypothesis that each of the variance components are null ($H_0 : \tau_{qq}=0$, for $q=0\sim 14$). The null hypothesis can be rejected in the case of social network capital with $\tau_{22}=0.127$ ($\chi^2=7.92$, $p<0.05$) and total work experience (less than 3 years) with $\tau_{99}=0.345$ ($\chi^2=4.89$, $p<0.05$). In other words, it can be inferred from the results that the relationship between social network capital and perceived employability, as well as the relationship between total work experience (less than 3 years) and perceived employability do indeed vary significantly across groups. The results from the random-coefficients model can be seen in <Table IV-15>.

<Table IV-15> Results from the Random-Coefficients Model

Fixed Effect		Coefficient	SE	t
Overall mean perceived employability, γ_{00}		3.613	0.170	21.23***
Positive Psychological Capital, γ_{10}		0.211	0.055	3.84**
Social Network Capital, γ_{20}		0.151	0.032	4.79***
Proactive Personality, γ_{30}		0.203	0.052	3.92**
Openness to changes at work, γ_{40}		0.110	0.036	3.06*
Gender, γ_{10} (reference group: male), γ_{50}		-0.036	0.032	-1.14
Age (reference group: over 50)	Under 30, γ_{60}	0.240	0.093	2.58*
	30~40, γ_{70}	0.247	0.085	2.91*
	40~50, γ_{80}	0.008	0.074	0.12
Total work experience (reference group: more than 15 years)	Less than 3 years, γ_{90}	-0.132	0.098	-1.34
	3~5 years, γ_{100}	-0.078	0.078	-1.01
	6~10 years, γ_{110}	-0.127	0.076	-1.67
	11~15 years, γ_{120}	-0.027	0.071	-0.38
Turnover (reference group: more than 5 times)	None, γ_{130}	-0.164	0.163	-1.00
	1~4 times, γ_{140}	-0.077	0.153	-0.51
Random Effect		SD	Variance	χ^2
Between-group variance, u_{0j}		0.345	0.118	76.80**
Positive Psychological Capital, u_{1j}		0.202	0.041	2.07
Social Network Capital, u_{2j}		0.127	0.016	7.92*
Proactive Personality, u_{3j}		0.222	0.049	1.71
Openness to changes at work, u_{4j}		0.141	0.020	0.51
Gender, γ_{10} (reference group: male), u_{5j}		0.088	0.008	1.40
Age (reference group: over 50)	Under 30, u_{6j}	0.203	0.041	1.73
	30~40, u_{7j}	0.040	0.002	0.21
	40~50, u_{8j}	0.203	0.041	1.64
Total work experience (reference group: more than 15 years)	Less than 3 years, u_{9j}	0.345	0.119	4.89*
	3~5 years, u_{10j}	0.229	0.052	1.46
	6~10 years, u_{11j}	0.182	0.033	0.71
	11~15 years, u_{12j}	0.276	0.078	1.29
Turnover (reference group: more than 5 times)	None, u_{13j}	0.245	0.060	0.50
	1~4 times, u_{14j}	0.172	0.030	0.00
Within-group variance, r_{ij}		0.297	0.088	

Note : * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$

Besides this, the proportion reduction in variance or variance explained at level 1 can be found by comparing the within-group variance (σ^2) estimates from the null model and the current model. As can be seen in <Table IV-16>, compared to the null model, the within-group variance of the current model was reduced from 0.199 to 0.088, implying that individual level variables account for about 55.78% of the within-group variance in perceived employability.

<Table IV-16> Proportion variance explained at level 1

Category	Variance	Variance explained (R^2)
Within-group variance (σ^2) (null model)	0.199	55.78
Within-group variance (σ^2) (current model)	0.088	

Note: $R^2 = (\sigma^2 \text{ of the null model} - \sigma^2 \text{ of the current model}) / \sigma^2 \text{ of the null model} \times 100$

F. Intercepts- and Slopes-as-Outcomes Model

The results of the previous model indicated that there was significant variance across groups in the level 1 and from there on, the intercepts- and slopes-as-outcomes model was set to see whether level-2 variables significantly predict the intercept, whether they predict the within-school slopes, and estimate how much variation in the intercepts and slopes is explained by level-2 variables. As the results of the random effect in the previous model revealed that the level of perceived employability varied significantly across groups only in the case of social network capital and total work experience (less than 3 years), the equation of the model had been modified accordingly, as follows.

Level-1:

$$\begin{aligned}
Y_{ij} = & \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(\text{positive psychological capital}) + \beta_{2j}(\text{social network capital}) + \beta_{3j}(\text{proactive personality}) \\
& + \beta_{4j}(\text{openness to changes at work}) + \beta_{5j}(\text{gender}) + \beta_{6j}(\text{age1}) + \beta_{7j}(\text{age2}) + \beta_{8j}(\text{age3}) \\
& + \beta_{9j}(\text{total work experience1}) + \beta_{10j}(\text{total work experience2}) + \beta_{11j}(\text{total work experience3}) \\
& + \beta_{12j}(\text{total work experience4}) + \beta_{13j}(\text{turnover1}) + \beta_{14j}(\text{turnover2}) + r_{ij}
\end{aligned}$$

Level-2:

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta_{0j} = & \gamma_{00}(\text{intercept}) + \gamma_{01}(\text{fairness in HR management}) \\
& + \gamma_{02}(\text{supervisor feedback}) + \gamma_{03}(\text{organizational career management}) + u_{0j}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10}(\text{intercept})$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta_{2j} = & \gamma_{20}(\text{intercept}) + \gamma_{21}(\text{fairness in HR management}) \\
& + \gamma_{22}(\text{supervisor feedback}) + \gamma_{23}(\text{organizational career management}) + u_{2j}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\beta_{3j} = \gamma_{30}(\text{intercept})$$

$$\beta_{4j} = \gamma_{40}(\text{intercept})$$

$$\beta_{5j} = \gamma_{50}(\text{intercept})$$

$$\beta_{6j} = \gamma_{60}(\text{intercept})$$

$$\beta_{7j} = \gamma_{70}(\text{intercept})$$

$$\beta_{8j} = \gamma_{80}(\text{intercept})$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta_{9j} = & \gamma_{90}(\text{intercept}) + \gamma_{91}(\text{fairness in HR management}) \\
& + \gamma_{92}(\text{supervisor feedback}) + \gamma_{93}(\text{organizational career management}) + u_{9j}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\beta_{10j} = \gamma_{100}(\text{intercept})$$

$$\beta_{11j} = \gamma_{110}(\text{intercept})$$

$$\beta_{12j} = \gamma_{120}(\text{intercept})$$

$$\beta_{13j} = \gamma_{130}(\text{intercept})$$

$$\beta_{14j} = \gamma_{140}(\text{intercept})$$

From this intercepts- and slopes-as-outcomes model, the following analysis can be made: whether the organizational level variables selected in the model significantly predict the intercept, whether those variables also predict the within-group slopes and finally, to see how much variation in the intercepts and the slopes is explained by those level-2 variables.

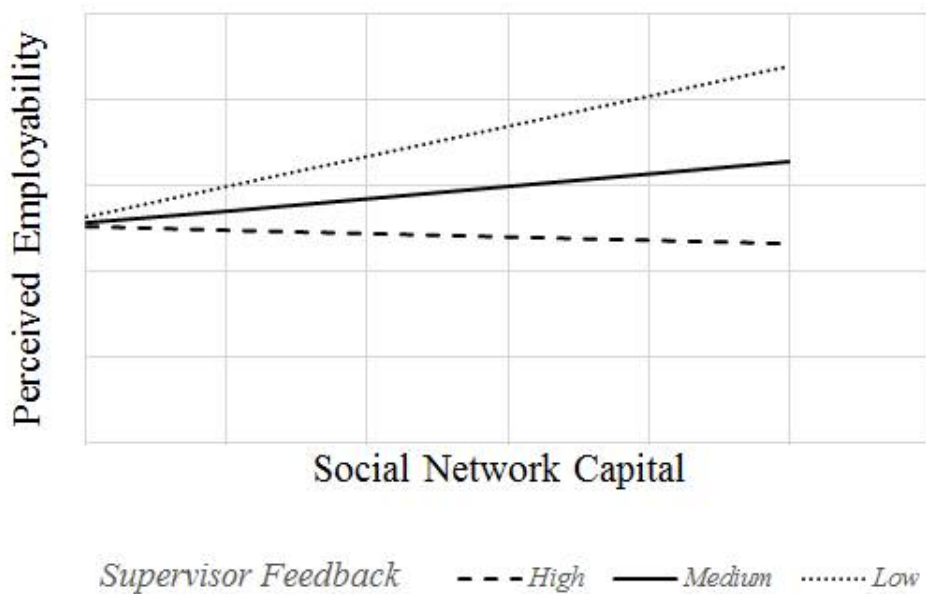
<Table IV-17> displays the results of the model. Concerning the first question as to whether the organizational level variables significantly predict the intercept, it can be seen that organizational career management is positively related to perceived employability ($\beta=0.126$, $p<0.05$). Meanwhile, supervisor feedback and fairness in HR management were found to not have any significant influence on perceived employability.

As to the second point of analysis regarding the interaction effect of organizational level variables in the relationship between perceived employability and individual level variables (social network capital and total work experience—less than 3 years), supervisor feedback and fairness in HR management were found to moderate the relationship between perceived employability and social network capital. More precisely, supervisor feedback was found to have a significant negative interaction effect on the relationship between perceived employability and social network capital. Meanwhile, fairness in HR management had a significant positive interaction effect on the relationship between perceived employability and social network capital. To better understand the interaction effect found through this model, the results were depicted graphically in [Figure IV-3] and [Figure IV-4]. For each of them, the results are displayed for high (0.5 standard deviation above the mean), medium and low (0.5 standard

deviation below the mean) groups.

<Table IV-17> Results from the intercepts- and slopes-as-outcomes model

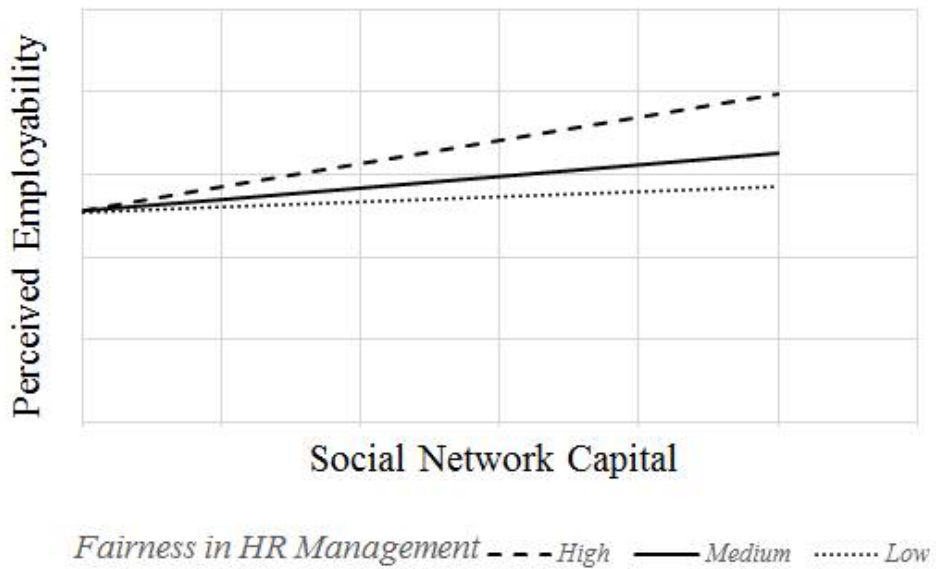
Fixed Effect	Coefficient	SE	t
Intercept, γ_{00}	3.565	0.194	18.34***
Organizational career management, γ_{01}	0.126	0.057	2.18
*Supervisor feedback, γ_{02}	-0.121	0.138	-0.87
*Fairness in HR management, γ_{03}	0.040	0.167	0.24
Positive Psychological Capital, γ_{10}	0.204	0.055	3.74***
Social Network Capital, γ_{20}	0.140	0.026	5.15***
*Organizational career management, γ_{21}	-0.102	0.062	-1.63
*Supervisor feedback, γ_{22}	-0.425	0.094	-4.53***
*Fairness in HR management, γ_{23}	0.410	0.103	3.99**
Proactive Personality, γ_{30}	0.225	0.045	4.94
Openness to changes at work, γ_{40}	0.115	0.036	3.13
Gender (<i>reference group: male</i>), γ_{50}	-0.034	0.030	-1.13
<i>Age (reference group: over 50)</i>			
Under 30, γ_{60}	0.126	0.127	0.99
30~40, γ_{70}	0.123	0.118	1.04
40~50, γ_{80}	0.011	0.089	0.13
<i>Total work experience (reference group: more than 15 years)</i>			
Less than 3 years, γ_{90}	-0.008	0.104	-0.07
*Organizational career management, γ_{91}	0.062	0.157	0.39
*Supervisor feedback, γ_{92}	-0.027	0.242	-0.11
*Fairness in HR management, γ_{93}	0.234	0.266	0.88
3~5 years, γ_{100}	0.071	0.091	0.78
6~10 years, γ_{110}	0.026	0.087	0.30
11~15 years, γ_{120}	0.062	0.082	0.75
<i>Turnover (reference group: more than 5 times)</i>			
None, γ_{130}	-0.139	0.186	-0.75
1~4 times, γ_{140}	-0.036	0.178	-0.20
Random Effect	SD	Variance	χ^2
Between-group variance, u_{0j}	0.109	0.012	27.64*
Social Network Capital u_{2j}	0.071	0.005	18.39
Total work experience (less than 3 years), u_{9j}	0.166	0.027	17.24
Within-group variance, r_{ij}	0.343	0.117	



[Figure IV-3] Interaction effect of supervisor feedback on the relationship between perceived employability and social network capital

By plotting on a graph and calculating the interaction effect of supervisor feedback on the relationship between perceived employability and social network capital for both high and low groups (see [Figure IV-3]), it was found that the high group had an intercept of 3.62 with a slope of -0.04 while the low group had an intercept of 3.51 with a slope of 0.35 . The graph makes it clear that while the low group has a positive slope, the high group has a negative slope. In other words, for those in companies where the level of supervisor feedback is 0.5 standard deviation above the mean, the more they possessed social network capital, the less confident they were in terms of their level of employability. The opposite observation applies for those in companies where

the level of supervisor feedback is 0.5 standard deviation below the mean: the more people possessed social network capital, the higher were their level of perceived employability. It can be noted that while the slope is steeper for the low-supervisor feedback group compared to the high-supervisor feedback group, the slope of the latter group is very close to zero, implying that the effect of social network on perceived employability is very low or almost negligible in the case of high-supervisor feedback group.



[Figure IV-4] Interaction effect of fairness in HR management on the relationship between perceived employability and social network capital

In the case of the interaction effect of fairness in HR management on the relationship between perceived employability and social network capital (see [Figure IV-4], the slopes for both the group with high as well as low level of fairness in HR management are positive. However, it is steeper for the high

group with a slope of 0.28 and an intercept of 3.57, compared to the low group with a slope of 0.06 and an intercept of 3.55. This means that the more people possess social network capital, the higher their level of perceived employability, and this is more evident for individuals belonging to companies with a level of fairness in HR management of 0.5 standard deviation above the mean compared to those in companies with a level of fairness in HR management of 0.5 standard deviation below the mean.

Besides, from the variance-covariance components, it can be concluded that significant variance in the intercepts remains unexplained ($x^2=27.64$, $p<0.05$) even after controlling for organizational career management, supervisor feedback and fairness in HR management. This means that there is significant variance still remaining in the intercept term that can be accounted for by other organizational level predictors. Meanwhile, no significant variation in the slopes remains unexplained after controlling for the level-2 variables with the result of the Chi-test showing $x^2=18.39$ ($p>0.05$) for social network capital and $x^2=17.24$ ($p>0.05$) for total work experience (less than 3 years).

Finally, compared to the random-coefficients regression model in the previous step, the between-group variance of the current model was reduced from 0.118 to 0.012 after individual-level variables were controlled (See <Table IV-18>). This means that 89.83% of the parameter variation in perceived employability, $\text{Var}(\beta_{0j})$, has been explained by organizational career management, supervisor feedback and fairness in HR management.

<Table IV-18> Proportion variance explained in β_{qj}

Category	Variance	Variance explained (R^2)
Between-group variance (τ_{00}) (Random-coefficients regression model)	0.118	89.83
Between-group variance (τ_{00}) (current model)	0.012	

Note: $R^2 = (\tau_{00} \text{ of the random-coefficients regression model} - \tau_{00} \text{ of the current model}) / \tau_{00} \text{ of random-coefficients regression model} \times 100$

G. Discussion

1. Level of Perceived Employability

The results of the descriptive statistics showed that the level of perceived employability of office workers in large corporations was moderately high with an average of 3.59. This is slightly higher than other studies undertaken in the Korean context with similar target populations, such as ones by Kang (2015), who studied employability as one of the variables predicting turnover ($M=3.22$), Bak (2014), who proposed a comprehensive approach looking at the effects of affective and cognitive traits as well as social and human capital characteristics of office workers in relation to perceived employability ($M=3.42$), and Seo (2010), who examined how perceived employability can affect job effectiveness ($M=3.47$).

A Scheffé test and t-test were applied to observe whether any statistically significant difference existed between groups in terms of gender (male/female), age (less than 30/30~40/40~50/over 50), education level (high school diploma or lower/2-year college degree/4-year university degree/graduate degree), job title (junior staff/assistant manager/manager/deputy general manager/above general

manager), type of work contract (permanent/temporary), tenure (less than 3 years/between 3~5 years/between 6~10 years/between 11~15 years/more than 15 years), work experience (less than 3 years/between 3~5 years/between 6~10 years/between 11~15 years/more than 15 years) and turnover (none/1~4 times/more than 5 times). The results revealed that only the differences in the level of perceived employability based on job title and turnover experience were found to be statistically significant. More precisely, in the case of job title, the difference in the average score between junior staff, with the lowest average ($M=3.50$), and deputy general managers ($M=3.79$), was statistically significant. In the case of turnover, the difference in the average score between those who had never moved to another company ($M=3.54$) and those who had a turnover experience between 1 and 4 times ($M=3.68$) was found to be statistically significant. In terms of tenure, those having moved companies between 1 and 4 times scored the highest ($M=3.68$), and the difference in the mean perceived employability score between that group and those who had never had any turnover experience was found to be statistically significant.

2. Null Model (One-Way ANOVA)

The null model, which partitions variance into within- and between-group components and provides a statistical test of the between-group variance estimate, was conducted to assess the proportion of variance explained by individual and organizational variables for perceived employability. The results of the null model showed that 15.8% of the variance in perceived employability is between the 32 companies studied.

Such results suggest that perceived employability is largely explained by individual-level difference rather than organizational-level difference. However, as between-group difference was found to be statistically significant, it implies that perceived employability is also affected by organizational-level factors. This is in line with other studies which have supported that organizational-level variables can also be important predictors, in addition to individual-level factors which are predominantly considered when it comes to perceived employability (Brown, Hesketh, Williams, 2003; Clarke, 2008; Clarke & Patrickson, 2008; Petersitzke, & Hristozova, 2006; McQuaid 2006).

This suggests that besides the inherent characteristics of an individual, such as demographic characteristics, psycho-social characteristics and other experiences that are unique to the person, contextual factors such as the various policies in place and other company characteristics also deserve to be explored when explaining perceived employability.

3. Random-Coefficients Regression Model

In terms of the effect of individual-level variables on perceived employability, positive psychological capital, social network capital, proactive personality, openness to changes at work and age (less than 30, between 30~40) were found to have a positive effect. When comparing the size of the β coefficient, age (between 30~40) was found to have the largest effect on perceived employability, followed by age (less than 30), positive psychological capital, proactive personality, social network capital and openness to changes at work. Meanwhile, total work experience and turnover were not found to have

any significant effect on perceived employability. The following discussion follows on from the above observations.

First of all, proactive personality was found to have a positive effect on perceived employability, and such a result is in line with evidence found in the literature review. More precisely, previous studies suggested the link in an indirect manner, such as by showing that people with proactive personality were more likely to identify and act on work opportunities through self-improvement behavior (McArdle et al., 2007). Further studies have also supported positive association with job-related performance (Bakker et al., 2012; Chan, 2006; Crant, 1995; Thompson, 2005) and other positive outcomes in work settings (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Gan & Cheun, 2010; Parker et al., 2007). A positive relationship between perceived employability and proactive personality was expected based on those studies, following the logic that individuals who experience positive achievements and experiences in the workplace would also exert more confidence when considering their level of employability. The result of this study supported the hypothesis, and such an outcome is particularly meaningful as it gives a basis to evidence of a direct positive link between proactive personality and perceived employability.

Secondly, positive psychological capital was also found to have a positive effect on perceived employability, a result which supports other similar studies (Chen & Lim, 2012; Fugate et al., 2008; Griffeth et al., 2005; Kirves et al., 2014). A theoretical approach had also been proposed in this study to support such a relationship. As mentioned in the literature review, following the job demands-resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006) and the theory of

conservation of resources (Hobfoll, 1989, 2011), positive psychological capital can be considered as forming a valuable resource for the individual, allowing the person to be more confident in perceiving himself/herself as having a high level of employability. The result of the analysis revealed that the research outcome is in line with previous studies and also supports the theoretical assumption proposed in this study.

Thirdly, social network capital was found to have a positive effect on perceived employability. Again, such results reflect the findings of other researchers who have sought to determine the relationship between these two factors (Bak, 2014; McArdle et al., 2007; Park, 2013). This implies that individuals who have a greater number of personal social relationships, whether within the current organization or outside of it, perceive themselves as having a higher level of employability. It can be emphasized again that social networks can provide emotional assistance in addition to material and informational resources, and therefore represent an important capital for individuals in gaining confidence in assessing their level of employability.

As a fourth point, the finding that openness to changes at work has a positive effect on perceived employability also supports other studies which report similar results (Bak, 2014; Wille et al., 2013). Openness to changes at work, or the willingness to accept new challenges imposed by the company, is indeed essential for surviving and staying in the current organization, which will in turn affect how one perceives his/her level of employability. The results of this study reinforce the evidence that such attitudes at work can provide an indication as to how employees feel about their level of employability in the

labor market.

A fifth point is that among the age groups (under 30, between 30~40, between 40~50, over 50), positive coefficients were found for the under 30 and 30~40 groups. As the reference was the over 50 group, the results imply that individuals under 30 and those aged between 30 and 40 have a higher level of perceived employability compared to the group aged over 50. This result should not be confused with the descriptive statistics reporting the level of perceived employability based on age, in which the over 30 group scored the highest average, while those under 30 had the lowest average score, with the score increasing gradually with age. Such results displayed a general tendency, but as shown by the Scheffé test, variation between groups was not statistically different. In other words, it would be incorrect to deduce that the level of perceived employability increases with age. The results of the random-coefficients model revealed that on the contrary, individuals under 30 and those aged between 30 and 40 have higher levels of perceived employability compared to the over 50 group. Such observations are in line with previous findings reporting a negative relationship between perceived employability and age (Boerlijst, 1994; Boerlijst, & Van der Heijden, 1996), and are of particular significance as few studies have actually included age in the research model to assess its exact link with perceived employability. While studies have reported age in the general descriptive statistics, it was mostly controlled for, along with other demographic characteristics. Therefore, this study contributes to a better understanding of the relationship between perceived employability and age.

4. Intercepts- and Slopes-as-Outcomes Model

The variables which had been computed at the organizational level to estimate the intercepts- and slopes-as-outcomes model were: organizational career management, supervisor feedback, and fairness in human resource management. The major findings concern the organizational-level variable which was shown to have a direct significant effect on perceived employability, as well as the interaction effects of organizational-level factors on the relationship between perceived employability and individual-level factors.

First, concerning level-2 variables with a statistically significant effect on perceived employability, only organizational career management was found to have a positive relationship, and the following discussion can be drawn from such results. The finding of a positive effect of organizational career management on perceived employability supports other research which reported similar findings (Berntson et al., 2006; De Vos et al., 2011; Wittekind et al., 2010). This means that in companies where career management support was provided in a more proactive manner, employees reported a higher level of perceived employability. Providing adequate training and development opportunities is important for workers to better adapt within the current organization and prepare for future challenges. This result is of substantial importance as it provides empirical evidence as to the value of organizational career management in the context of large corporations in Korea.

In regards to the finding that no significant effect was brought to light between perceived employability and fairness in HR management and supervisor

feedback, the following explanations may be put forward. It can be presumed that respondents belonging to the same company may not have displayed similar judgements on the systems and policies put in place within the organization. This could be more relevant in the case of large corporations due to their size and because they are separated into various departments. In such structures, a 'sub-culture' could exist on the departments or team level, all within the same company. Bate (1992) explains for instance that the 'sub-culture' which can exist at the level of the team may affect how employees behave. In some cases, certain treatments (such as evaluation and promotion policy) may differ according to the department. Employees belonging to different departments may have different perceptions and this will greatly affect the coherence of the data, especially in the case of a hierarchical linear modeling since it is the average of all the respondents from the same company (one average per company for each organizational-level variable) that is computed in the equation.

Second, in estimating the interaction effect of organizational-level factors on the relationship between perceived employability and individual-level factors, the results were as follows: supervisor feedback and fairness in HR management had an interaction effect on the relationship between perceived employability and social network capital. The following discussions can be drawn.

Considering the first interaction effect in greater detail, we see that supervisor feedback had a negative interaction effect on the relationship between perceived employability and social network capital. The graph makes it clear that in the case of individuals belonging to companies where the level of supervisor feedback is 0.5 standard deviation higher than average, the slope was

negative, meaning that the more they possessed social network capital, the less confident they were about their level of employability. However, it has to be noted that the negative slope was close to zero, implying that the effect of social network on perceived employability is very weak or almost negligible in the case of the high-supervisor feedback group. As for the group with a low level of supervisor feedback, the slope was found to be positive, implying that the more individuals possessed social network capital, the higher their perception of employability. Several explanations can be proposed for the results considering the complexity which frames the concept of supervisor feedback. For individuals who belong to companies that encourage supervisor feedback, the effect of social network capital on perceived employability might be attenuated as supervisors can take on the role of mentors. In other words, individuals could get the inspiration and assistance related to career from supervisors, which are things they would normally get from social network capital. The opposite explanation can also be valid for the group with low level of supervisor feedback where a positive relationship was found between perceived employability and social network capital. For those employees who work in a company where supervisors do not provide feedback much, the value or benefits coming from social network capital one possesses would be even greater.

Added to this, besides the content of the feedback coming from supervisors, personal dispositions that may influence the impact of the feedback environment needs to be considered. Approaches to feedback have indeed moved from a static view focusing on the immediate effects of supervisor feedback to a more dynamic view focusing on personal dispositions such as the willingness and ability to receive, process and make use of feedbacks (Dahling, Chau, &

O'Malley, 2012; Gregory & Levy, 201). Indeed the effect of supervisor feedback should be analyzed in connection with the concept of feedback orientation defined as an individual's overall receptivity to feedback including the affective reactions, propensity to seek out and perceiving the value of feedback received (London & Smither, 2002). Linderbaum and Levy (2010) advanced that individuals high on feedback orientation have a tendency to better appreciate the utility of feedback and feeling more accountable to use valuable feedback. Empirical evidence also supports that feedback orientation is a critical moderator as it was found that the positive relationship with supervisor feedback was stronger for those who were high on feedback orientation compared to those who were low on feedback orientation (Gabriel, Frantz, Levy, & Hilliard, 2014).

To sum up, the complex dynamics behind the interaction between perceived employability, supervisor feedback and social network capital needs to be further explored. The result of this interaction effect suggests that the concept of supervisor feedback deserves closer attention to the various underlying aspects, for instance the amount or intensity of feedback given to subordinates, and the feedback orientation of the employees.

Concerning the second interaction effect, fairness in human resource management was found to have a positive interaction effect on the relationship between perceived employability and social network capital. More precisely, the effect of social network capital on perceived employability increased in companies offering a fair HR management. Moreover, the slope of the graph was steeper in companies with a high level of fairness in HR management

compared to those with a lower level. In other words, in the case of individuals belonging to companies guaranteeing a high level of fairness in HR management, their level of perceived employability was higher as social network capital increased compared to those belonging to the group with a low level of fairness in HR management. The following interpretation can be proposed for such results.

As advanced in relevant studies, social network capital, especially the professional relationships inside and outside an organization, constitute a valuable source of information and support relevant to working life (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; Eby et al., 2013; Kong & Yan, 2014; Suutari & Mäkelä, 2007). Burt (1997) explained for instance that the information and influence one gets from social networks can provide individuals with ideas for new career opportunities. However, in order to realize the career opportunities arising within the same organization (promotion or new assignments), it is essential that the company provides a favorable environment for individuals to seek out their career aspirations. This includes guaranteeing a fair treatment when it comes to promotion and personnel management policy. Individuals with wide social relationships would be provided with useful information and assistance relevant to working life, which would then influence how they perceive themselves in terms of their employability. Such a positive relationship would be reinforced if they belong to a company running fair HR policies. This significant finding serves as strong evidence in emphasizing the importance of providing equal and fair treatment to employees.

V. Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

A. Summary

The purpose of the study was to analyze the hierarchical linear relationship between perceived employability, individual characteristics and organizational characteristics of office workers in large corporations. More concretely, the goals of the study were as follows. First, to assess whether there is any difference in the level of perceived employability based on individual and organizational level characteristics; second, to examine the effect of individual-level characteristics on perceived employability; third, to examine the effect of organizational-level characteristics on perceived employability; and fourth, to examine the interaction effect of organizational-level characteristics on the relationship between perceived employability and individual-level variables. Individual level variables were composed of: demographic characteristics (gender and age); job-related characteristics (total work experience and turnover); positive psychological capital; proactive personality; social network capital; and openness to changes at work. Organizational characteristics included fairness in human resource management, supervisor feedback and organizational career development support.

The survey was undertaken from November 1st to 19th 2015, with a target sample population of 640 people from 32 companies. Data was collected from 618 people belonging to 32 different companies (return rate of 96.6%) of which 522 were retained for the final analysis (data validity of 84.5%).

The results showed that the overall mean score of perceived employability of office workers in large corporations was 3.59. In terms of the hierarchical

linear modeling of perceived employability, individual and organizational-level variables, the following findings were found.

First, a significant within- and between-group variance in perceived employability ($\chi^2=117.018$, $p<0.001$) existed. Second, it was found that about 15.8% of the variance in perceived employability was between different companies. Third, in the random coefficient regression model, it was found that psychological capital ($\beta=0.211$, $p<0.01$), social network capital ($\beta=0.151$, $p<0.001$), proactive personality ($\beta=0.203$, $p<0.01$) and openness to changes at work ($\beta=0.110$, $p<0.05$), age in the case of those under 30 ($\beta=0.240$, $p<0.05$) and those between 30 and 40 years old ($\beta=0.247$, $p<0.05$) had a significant positive effect on perceived employability. Fourth, in terms of the organizational level variables, organizational career management was found to have a significant positive effect ($\beta=0.126$ $p<0.05$). Fifth, the analysis of the interaction effect revealed that supervisor feedback had a negative significant interaction effect, while fairness in HR management had a positive significant interaction effect on the relationship between perceived employability and social network capital. Sixth, individual-level variables account for about 55.78% of the within-group variance in perceived employability, while 89.83% of the parameter variation in perceived employability was explained by organizational-level variables after controlling the individual-level variables.

B. Conclusions

Based on the results summarized above, the following key conclusions can be drawn for this study.

First of all, the level of perceived employability of office workers in large corporations was revealed to be relatively high, implying that these employees, working in major companies leading the Korean economy, can be regarded as flexible and competent enough to face the various challenges arising in the business world. It is this flexibility and competence that translates into the confidence that one exerts when considering one's competitiveness in the labor market. It is therefore a good sign that those workers reported a fairly high level of perceived employability, since they will be increasingly required to find ways to face challenges in their professional life, and to manage their career on their own, especially in the context of large Korean corporations. Korean conglomerates are characterized by their rather unique corporate governance structure and business model, as they encompass an extremely wide range of business areas. Employees in those companies are exposed to a complex work environment and are required to demonstrate swiftness and agility in performing new tasks. It is therefore especially crucial for workers in large corporations to increase their level of employability in order to better secure their work and adapt themselves to a fast-changing and dynamic world.

Second, certain characteristics were observed among employees showing a higher level of perceived employability than others. They were male rather than female, holding a graduate level degree, over 50 years old, deputy general managers, permanent workers, employees who had served the company for about

11~15 years, those who had accumulated a total work experience of around 11~15 years, and employees who had moved to another company between 1~4 times. Workers who fit this description reported a higher level of perceived employability. Meanwhile, it should be noted that these observations are the result of descriptive statistics and represent a general tendency found in the sample, implying that any generalization would be inappropriate.

Third, positive psychological capital, social network capital, proactive personality, openness to changes at work and age were found to affect the level of perceived employability of workers in large corporations. This means that having a high level of self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience; knowing relevant people that may offer career related assistance whether that be from personal or professional network; engaging in proactive behavior; and willing to face and accept challenges arising from the working environment in a positive manner are all important attitudes and dispositions that predict how individuals perceive about their level of employability. Age was also found to be an important element to consider when assessing the level of perceived employability. All those results and observations support previous findings emphasizing the responsibility of individuals in the development of their competitiveness and employability in the labor market.

Fourth, the hierarchical linear modeling undertaken to identify the relationships between perceived employability, individual and organizational-level variables, has allowed us to conclude that a significant within and between-group variance exists. Such results support the idea that more effort should be invested to better elucidate the role of organizational-level factors in

explaining perceived employability, which had often been considered only at the individual level. Organizational career management was found to have a positive effect on perceived employability, while supervisor feedback and fairness in HR management were found to have an interaction effect with social network capital. This clearly supports the notion that certain company cultures or policies can influence employees' perception as to their level of employability. In other words, this study provides good evidence that the level of workers' perceived employability differs depending on which company they work for, or to what extent the organization provides a favorable environment for employees to feel more confident about their competitiveness.

Fifth, contextual factors should be considered with great care, especially for companies who seek to enhance the competitiveness of their employees. It goes without saying that increasing the perceived employability of workers is very important and can be beneficial for the company. In this knowledge based-economy, employees represent a valuable asset for companies. Perceived employability is directly linked to the workers' flexibility, competency, and thus, to performance. The results of this study provide empirical evidence of the role that organizations can play in promoting the competitiveness of their employees, for example by providing career management support, which was found to have a direct effect, and by guaranteeing fair human resource management, as well as encouraging supervisors to offer positive support and feedback, both of which were found to have a moderating role in the relationship between perceived employability and individual-level variables.

C. Recommendations

The following recommendations for future research are suggested based on the findings and conclusions presented above.

First, a more comprehensive approach needs to be adopted to better grasp which organizational-level factors might influence the level of perceived employability. Organizational career management, supervisor feedback and fairness in human resource management were selected in this study. Other variables that better reflect the environmental characteristics of the company need to be considered. These may include the process of internal job openings, or policies related to job rotation and other practices which could influence the accumulation of skills and experience.

Second, a more targeted sampling could be recommended for future research with a similar focus. Korean conglomerates are particularly big in size and characterized by the wide range of business areas found within the same company. This implies that ‘sub-cultures’ could exist in the company that can be broken down into different departments. Since hierarchical linear modeling is a method that reacts sensitively to the combination of the multilevel data, limiting the sampling to a specific department or team within the company could be considered for a more accurate analysis. In other words, sampling those individuals who belong to the same team could be considered for a more homogeneous data collection, as they would be more likely to share similar judgements on the organizational culture and policies.

Third, perceived employability could be studied with other individual-level

variables that are particularly relevant in the workplace context. Perceived employability is considered to be closely linked with job-environment fit and job satisfaction; it is a very complex concept that can be tackled from various angles. Analyzing its relationship to skill mismatch, job satisfaction, job adaptability, and job and organizational commitment would be of particular significance, especially in showing the benefits for companies in promoting their employees' level of perceived employability.

Fourth, perceived employability could be associated with various career-related attitudes and behaviors. People are increasingly required to adapt to new working environments which always challenge their competitiveness in the labor market. Added to this, the general perception of employment has shifted from that of a secure lifetime job to a job in which the employee can gain satisfaction. In other words, workers in today's society are increasingly seeking to promote their level of employability, not only to survive in a competitive market, but also to achieve their own professional aspirations. Therefore, analyzing perceived employability in connection to career-related issues would allow us to add a valuable layer to the rich field of study on perceived employability.

Fifth, a more narrow and focused analysis would allow us to better grasp the dynamics and issues surrounding the concept of perceived employability. For instance, studies which bring special attention onto individuals who belong to a specific age-range or tenure would provide meaningful insight. As an example, it was shown in the study that the older the worker, the higher his or her average score for perceived employability. A further study could look at those

above a certain age and seniority, and the findings could be used to develop new policies concerning workers close to retirement. Korea is now an ageing society and issues related to outplacement and other provisions to assist older workers in making successful job transitions need to be considered. Similarly, studies could be undertaken with a special focus on women who generally face greater career challenges, or newcomers who are very eager to enhance their employability in the internal as well as external labor market. Workers nearing retirement, women and newcomers are examples of sub-groups within the labor market that deserve particular attention when it comes to enhancing employability. Hence, related studies with variables and research models more specific to those groups would be of added significance.

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[Appendix 1] Pilot Survey Questionnaire

안녕하십니까?

바쁘신 중에도 소중한 시간을 내어 주셔서 깊은 감사의 말씀을 드립니다.

본 설문은 대기업 사무직 근로자들의 고용가능성, 개인 및 조직 특성 간의 관계를 연구하기 위한 기초자료로 사용될 것입니다. 설문지 문항에는 옳거나 그른 답이 없으니, 바람직하다고 생각하는 것이나, 본인이 되고자 하는 모습이 아닌 자신을 잘 나타내는 것에 응답하여 주시기 바랍니다. 설문응답에는 약 8분가량 소요됩니다.

응답하지 않은 문항이 하나라도 있으면, 그 설문지는 분석할 수 없으니 한 문항도 빠짐없이 응답하여 주시기를 부탁드립니다.

응답해주시는 모든 내용은 통계법 제33조 2항에 의거하여 익명으로 처리되어 특정 개인 및 조직의 특성은 노출되지 않으며, 오직 연구를 위한 자료로만 사용될 것을 약속드립니다.

끝으로 늘 건강과 행복이 가득하시기를 기원하며, 바쁘신 데도 불구하고 귀중한 시간을 내 주셔서 거듭 감사의 말씀을 드립니다.

2015년 11월

서울대학교 대학원 농산업교육과

박사과정 전 지 민

지도교수 정 철 영

A. 고용가능성, 긍정심리자본, 사회네트워크자본, 주도적성격,
일 관련 변화 수용성, 조직경력관리지원, 상사의 피드백 및
인사관리공정성 측정

I. 다음은 귀하의 고용가능성과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 √ 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(나는 ~)		전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1.	회사가 구조조정을 하더라도 나는 그 대상에 포함되지 않을 것이라 확신한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2.	회사 내에서 형성한 개인적 네트워크는 나의 경력에 도움이 된다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3.	현재 내가 하고 있는 업무와는 다른 성격의 것이라 하더라도 회사 내의 새로운 (업무) 기회들에 대해 알고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4.	현 직장에서 습득한 기술은 회사 밖 다른 직종에서도 활용 가능하다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5.	다른 곳에서의 취업 가능성을 높이기 위해 재교육을 받을 의사가 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6.	현재 내가 하고 있는 일과 다른 것이라도 회사 밖에서의 나를 위한 기회에 대해 잘 알고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7.	회사 내에서 같은 일을 하는 사람들 사이에서 나는 꽤 인정을 받고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8.	만약에 필요하다면 현재의 회사와 비슷한 다른 회사로 쉽게 이직을 할 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9.	나는 어떤 회사에서든 현재와 유사한 직장을 쉽게 구할 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10.	나와 비슷한 수준의 기술, 지식, 그리고 직업 및 직장 경험을 가진 사람을 구하는 고용주들이 많을 것이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11.	내가 보유한 기술 및 경험과 관련성이 있는 곳이라면, 나는 어디에든 취직할 수 있을 것이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

II. 다음은 귀하의 **긍정심리자본**과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 ☒ 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(나는 ~)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 나는 장기적인 문제를 분석해서 해결책을 찾아낼 자신이 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 나는 경영총과의 회의에서 나의 업무분야에 대해 보고하는 일에 자신이 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 나는 회사의 전략을 논하는 자리에서 적극적으로 의견을 개진할 자신이 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 나는 나의 업무분야에서 목표를 설정하는 것에 자신이 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 나는 문제해결을 위해 외부인들(예: 협력업체, 고객)을 만나는 일에 자신이 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 나는 다수의 동료들에게 정보를 제공하는 일에 자신이 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 나는 직장에서 난관에 부딪혔을 때 이를 극복하기 위한 다양한 방법을 생각해 낼 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 지금 나는 나의 업무목표를 달성하기 위해서 열정적으로 일하고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 어떤 문제라도 그것을 해결할 수 있는 방법은 많다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 지금 나는 직장에서 꽤 성공적으로 업무를 수행하고 있다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. 나는 현재 업무목표를 달성할 수 있는 다양한 방법을 생각해 낼 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12. 지금 나는 내 스스로 설정한 업무목표를 달성하고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13. 나는 직장에서 좌절을 겪었을 때, 그것을 떨쳐버리고 회복하는 데 어려움을 느낀다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14. 나는 직장에서 어려움이 부딪히더라도 여러 가지 방법을 동원하여 극복해낸다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15. 나는 근무 시 필요하다면 혼자 힘으로도 알아서 업무를 처리할 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16. 나는 직장생활에서의 스트레스를 잘 극복하는 편이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

19. 나는 업무결과가 불확실한 상황에서 최상의 결과를 기대하는 편이다,	①	②	③	④	⑤
20. 나는 업무와 관련된 문제가 생길 경우, 그 일이 잘 안될 것이라고 체념하는 편이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
21. 나는 항상 내 직무에 있어서 긍정적인 면을 보려고 한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
22. 나는 내가 하고 있는 일의 미래 전망을 낙관적으로 보고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
23. 내가 맡고 있는 이들은 결코 내가 원하는 방식으로 풀려가지 않는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
24. 나는 힘든 일이 있으면 좋은 일도 있을 것이라는 믿음으로 일을 대한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

III. 다음은 귀하의 **사회 네트워크 자본**과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 **✓** 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(나는 ~)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 동료들은 내가 회사 내 아는 사람이 많다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 나는 회사 내에서 알고 지내는 사람이 많다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 나는 회사 내 폭넓은 인간관계를 유지하고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 나는 내가 일하는 산업분야에서 넓은 인간관계를 유지하고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 동료들은 내가 회사 밖의 사람들도 많이 알고 있다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 정기적으로 회사 밖의 사람들과 모임을 갖는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 나의 직업과 관련된 인맥이 넓지 않다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

IV. 다음은 귀하의 **주도적 성격**과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 **✓** 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(나는 ~)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 나는 항상 내 삶을 향상시키기 위한 방법을 찾는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 나는 항상 건설적인 변화를 가져오는 핵심적인 역할을 해 왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 내 아이디어를 실현시키기 위해 노력하는 것은 즐거운 일이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 어떤 것이 나의 마음에 들지 않는다면, 나는 마음에 들도록 그것을 변화시킨다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 가능성이 낮다 하더라도 내가 믿는 것이 있다면 그것을 실현시키기 위해 노력한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 타인의 반대가 있더라도 내 아이디어를 관철시키는 것을 좋아한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 나는 기회를 파악하는 능력이 탁월하다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 나는 일을 하는 데 있어 항상 더 나은 방법을 찾는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 내 생각이 맞다고 믿으면 어떤 장애물도 내가 추진하는 것을 막지 못한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 나는 다른 사람보다 훨씬 앞서서 기회를 잡을 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

V. 다음은 귀하의 **일 관련 변화 수용성**과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 **✓** 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(나는 ~)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 직장에서의 변화는 대체로 긍정적인 영향이 있다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 직장에서 일어나는 변화를 대체로 잘 받아들인다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 나는 직장에서 일어나는 변화에 대해 개방적이라고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 나는 직무 및 조직의 변화에 효과적으로 대처할 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 직장에서의 변화 상황에 잘 적응할 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

VI. 다음은 귀하가 생각하는 조직경력관리지원에 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 √ 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(내가 속해있는 회사에서의 경험을 토대로 볼 때 ~)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 회사에서 나의 경력 개발에 도움이 되는 훈련을 받아왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 상사는 나의 경력에 필요한 훈련을 받을 수 있도록 힘써왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 회사에서 업무를 하는데 필요한 내용에 대해 지도를 받아왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 회사는 나에게 개인발전계획(personal development plan)을 제시해 주었다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 장래에 필요한 기술을 개발할 수 있는 업무를 받아왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 상사는 나의 성과에 대한 명확한 피드백을 주었다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 내가 필요할 때, 나의 경력에 관한 객관적인 조언을 받아왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 나의 경력개발에 도움을 줄 수 있는 사람들을 회사 내에서 소개 받아왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 회사는 나의 경력개발을 도와줄 수 있는 멘토를 소개해주었다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 상사는 나의 경력에 도움을 줄 수 있는 사람들을 소개해주었다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

VII. 다음은 귀하가 생각하는 상사의 피드백과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 √ 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(나의 직속 상관과의 관계를 보았을 때)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 상사는 내가 수행하는 직무에 대해 유용한 피드백을 준다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 내가 수행한 직무성공에 대한 상사의 피드백은 유용하다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 나는 상사의 피드백이 가치 있다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 상사의 피드백은 업무하는 데 도움이 된다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 상사가 준 업무수행관련 정보는 대체로 별 의미가 없는 것들이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

VIII. 다음은 귀하가 생각하는 인사관리공정성과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 √ 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(내가 속해있는 회사에서의 경험을 토대로 볼 때 ~)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 나는 나의 성과를 평가하는데 사용되는 기준을 알고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 우리 회사에서는 인사고과가 공정하고 객관성 있게 이루어지고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 우리 회사에서는 업무의 중간과정을 무시한 채 그 결과만을 가지고 평가한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 조직원들은 인사고과의 결과를 수긍하지 못한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 우리 회사의 승진제도 운영은 합리적이다.					
6. 우리 회사는 실제로 능력이 뛰어난 사람을 승진시키고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

B. 일반적 특성

IX. 다음은 귀하의 일반적인 사항과 관련한 사항입니다. 각 문항을 잘 읽고 해당번호에 √ 표시를 하시거나 정확한 숫자를 기입해 주시기 바랍니다. 귀하가 응답한 일반적인 사항은 단지 자료의 분석에만 사용되며, 개인의 정보는 절대로 유출되지 않습니다.

1. 귀하의 성별은 ? ___ ① 남자 ___ ② 여자
2. 귀하의 연령은 ? (만) _____ 세
3. 귀하의 최종학력은 ?
___ ① 고졸이하 ___ ② 전문대졸 ___ ③ 4년대졸 ___ ④ 대학원 이상
4. 귀하의 직위는 ?
___ ① 일반사원 ___ ② 대리 ___ ③ 과장 ___ ④ 차장 ___ ⑤ 부장이상
5. 귀하의 고용형태는? ___ ① 정규직 ___ ② 비정규직(계약직, 인턴사원)
6. 귀하의 현재 직장생활 경력은? (만) _____ 년 _____ 개월
7. 귀하의 총 직장생활 경험은? (만) _____ 년 _____ 개월
8. 귀하의 직장생활 중 이직 횟수는? _____ 회

바쁘신 가운데 끝까지 응답해 주셔서 대단히 감사합니다

[Appendix 2] Main Survey Questionnaire

안녕하십니까?

바쁘신 중에도 소중한 시간을 내어 주셔서 깊은 감사의 말씀을 드립니다.

본 설문은 대기업 사무직 근로자들의 고용가능성, 개인 및 조직 특성 간의 관계를 연구하기 위한 기초자료로 사용될 것입니다. 설문지 문항에는 옳거나 그른 답이 없으니, 바람직하다고 생각하는 것이나, 본인이 되고자 하는 모습이 아닌 자신을 잘 나타내는 것에 응답하여 주시기 바랍니다. 설문응답에는 약 8분가량 소요됩니다.

응답하지 않은 문항이 하나라도 있으면, 그 설문지는 분석할 수 없으니 한 문항도 빠짐없이 응답하여 주시기를 부탁드립니다.

응답해주시는 모든 내용은 통계법 제33조 2항에 의거하여 익명으로 처리되어 특정 개인 및 조직의 특성은 노출되지 않으며, 오직 연구를 위한 자료로만 사용될 것을 약속드립니다.

끝으로 늘 건강과 행복이 가득하시기를 기원하며, 바쁘신 데도 불구하고 귀중한 시간을 내 주셔서 거듭 감사의 말씀을 드립니다.

2015년 11월

서울대학교 대학원 농산업교육과

박사과정 전 지 민

지도교수 정 철 영

A. 고용가능성, 긍정심리자본, 사회네트워크자본, 주도적성격,
일 관련 변화 수용성, 조직경력관리지원, 상사의 피드백 및
인사관리공정성 측정

I. 다음은 귀하의 고용가능성과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 √ 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(나는 ~)		전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1.	회사가 구조조정을 하더라도 나는 그 대상에 포함되지 않을 것이라 확신한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2.	회사 내에서 형성한 개인적 네트워크는 나의 경력에 도움이 된다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3.	현재 내가 하고 있는 업무와는 다른 성격의 것이라 하더라도 회사 내의 새로운 (업무) 기회들에 대해 알고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4.	현 직장에서 습득한 기술은 회사 밖 다른 직종에서도 활용 가능하다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5.	다른 곳에서의 취업 가능성을 높이기 위해 재교육을 받을 의사가 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6.	현재 내가 하고 있는 일과 다른 것이라도 회사 밖에서의 나를 위한 기회에 대해 잘 알고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7.	회사 내에서 같은 일을 하는 사람들 사이에서 나는 꽤 인정을 받고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8.	만약에 필요하다면 현재의 회사와 비슷한 다른 회사로 쉽게 이직을 할 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9.	나는 어떤 회사에서든 현재와 유사한 직장을 쉽게 구할 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10.	나와 비슷한 수준의 기술, 지식, 그리고 직업 및 직장 경험을 가진 사람을 구하는 고용주들이 많을 것이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11.	내가 보유한 기술 및 경험과 관련성이 있는 곳이라면, 나는 어디에든 취직할 수 있을 것이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

II. 다음은 귀하의 **긍정심리자본**과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 ☒ 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(나는 ~)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 나는 장기적인 문제를 분석해서 해결책을 찾아낼 자신이 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 나는 경영총과의 회의에서 나의 업무분야에 대해 보고하는 일에 자신이 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 나는 회사의 전략을 논하는 자리에서 적극적으로 의견을 개진할 자신이 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 나는 나의 업무분야에서 목표를 설정하는 것에 자신이 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 나는 문제해결을 위해 외부인들(예: 협력업체, 고객)을 만나는 일에 자신이 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 나는 다수의 동료들에게 정보를 제공하는 일에 자신이 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 나는 직장에서 난관에 부딪혔을 때 이를 극복하기 위한 다양한 방법을 생각해 낼 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 지금 나는 나의 업무목표를 달성하기 위해서 열정적으로 일하고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 어떤 문제라도 그것을 해결할 수 있는 방법은 많다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 지금 나는 직장에서 꽤 성공적으로 업무를 수행하고 있다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. 나는 현재 업무목표를 달성할 수 있는 다양한 방법을 생각해 낼 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12. 지금 나는 내 스스로 설정한 업무목표를 달성하고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13. 나는 직장에서 좌절을 겪었을 때, 그것을 떨쳐버리고 회복하는 데 어려움을 느낀다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14. 나는 직장에서 어려움이 부딪히더라도 여러 가지 방법을 동원하여 극복해낸다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15. 나는 근무 시 필요하다면 혼자 힘으로도 알아서 업무를 처리할 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16. 나는 직장생활에서의 스트레스를 잘 극복하는 편이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

19. 나는 업무결과가 불확실한 상황에서 최상의 결과를 기대하는 편이다,	①	②	③	④	⑤
20. 나는 업무와 관련된 문제가 생길 경우, 그 일이 잘 안될 것이라고 체념하는 편이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
21. 나는 항상 내 직무에 있어서 긍정적인 면을 보려고 한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
22. 나는 내가 하고 있는 일의 미래 전망을 낙관적으로 보고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
23. 내가 맡고 있는 이들은 결코 내가 원하는 방식으로 풀려가지 않는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
24. 나는 힘든 일이 있으면 좋은 일도 있을 것이라는 믿음으로 일을 대한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

III. 다음은 귀하의 **사회 네트워크 자본**과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 **√** 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(나는 ~)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 동료들은 내가 회사 내 아는 사람이 많다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 나는 회사 내에서 알고 지내는 사람이 많다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 나는 회사 내 폭넓은 인간관계를 유지하고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 나는 내가 일하는 산업분야에서 넓은 인간관계를 유지하고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 동료들은 내가 회사 밖의 사람들도 많이 알고 있다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 정기적으로 회사 밖의 사람들과 모임을 갖는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 나의 직업과 관련된 인맥이 넓지 않다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

IV. 다음은 귀하의 **주도적 성격**과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 **✓** 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(나는 ~)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 나는 항상 내 삶을 향상시키기 위한 방법을 찾는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 나는 항상 건설적인 변화를 가져오는 핵심적인 역할을 해 왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 내 아이디어를 실현시키기 위해 노력하는 것은 즐거운 일이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 어떤 것이 나의 마음에 들지 않는다면, 나는 마음에 들도록 그것을 변화시킨다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 가능성이 낮다 하더라도 내가 믿는 것이 있다면 그것을 실현시키기 위해 노력한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 타인의 반대가 있더라도 내 아이디어를 관철시키는 것을 좋아한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 나는 기회를 파악하는 능력이 탁월하다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 나는 일을 하는 데 있어 항상 더 나은 방법을 찾는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 내 생각이 맞다고 믿으면 어떤 장애물도 내가 추진하는 것을 막지 못한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 나는 다른 사람보다 훨씬 앞서서 기회를 잡을 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

V. 다음은 귀하의 **일 관련 변화 수용성**과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 **✓** 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(나는 ~)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 직장에서의 변화는 대체로 긍정적인 영향이 있다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 직장에서 일어나는 변화를 대체로 잘 받아들인다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 나는 직장에서 일어나는 변화에 대해 개방적이라고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 나는 직무 및 조직의 변화에 효과적으로 대처할 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 직장에서의 변화 상황에 잘 적응할 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

VI. 다음은 귀하가 생각하는 조직경력관리지원에 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 √ 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(내가 속해있는 회사에서의 경험을 토대로 볼 때 ~)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 회사에서 나의 경력 개발에 도움이 되는 훈련을 받아왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 상사는 나의 경력에 필요한 훈련을 받을 수 있도록 힘써왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 회사에서 업무를 하는데 필요한 내용에 대해 지도를 받아왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 회사는 나에게 개인발전계획(personal development plan)을 제시해 주었다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 장래에 필요한 기술을 개발할 수 있는 업무를 받아왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 상사는 나의 성과에 대한 명확한 피드백을 주었다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 내가 필요할 때, 나의 경력에 관한 객관적인 조언을 받아왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 나의 경력개발에 도움을 줄 수 있는 사람들을 회사 내에서 소개 받아왔다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 회사는 나의 경력개발을 도와줄 수 있는 멘토를 소개해주었다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 상사는 나의 경력에 도움을 줄 수 있는 사람들을 소개해주었다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

VII. 다음은 귀하가 생각하는 상사의 피드백과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 √ 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(나의 직속 상관과의 관계를 보았을 때)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 상사는 내가 수행하는 직무에 대해 유용한 피드백을 준다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 내가 수행한 직무성공에 대한 상사의 피드백은 유용하다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 나는 상사의 피드백이 가치 있다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 상사의 피드백은 업무하는 데 도움이 된다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 상사가 준 업무수행관련 정보는 대체로 별 의미가 없는 것들이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

VIII. 다음은 귀하가 생각하는 인사관리공정성과 관련된 질문입니다. 아래 각 문항들을 읽고 현재 귀하의 관심 수준과 가장 일치하는 번호에 √ 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(내가 속해있는 회사에서의 경험을 토대로 볼 때 ~)	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	그저 그렇다	다소 그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 나는 나의 성과를 평가하는데 사용되는 기준을 알고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 우리 회사에서는 인사고과가 공정하고 객관성 있게 이루어지고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 우리 회사에서는 업무의 중간과정을 무시한 채 그 결과만을 가지고 평가한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 조직원들은 인사고과의 결과를 수긍하지 못한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 우리 회사의 승진제도 운영은 합리적이다.					
6. 우리 회사는 실제로 능력이 뛰어난 사람을 승진시키고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

B. 일반적 특성

IX. 다음은 귀하의 일반적인 사항과 관련한 사항입니다. 각 문항을 잘 읽고 해당번호에 √ 표시를 하시거나 정확한 숫자를 기입해 주시기 바랍니다. 귀하가 응답한 일반적인 사항은 단지 자료의 분석에만 사용되며, 개인의 정보는 절대로 유출되지 않습니다.

2. 귀하의 성별은 ? ___ ① 남자 ___ ② 여자
2. 귀하의 연령은 ? (만) _____ 세
3. 귀하의 최종학력은 ?
___ ① 고졸이하 ___ ② 전문대졸 ___ ③ 4년대졸 ___ ④ 대학원 이상
4. 귀하의 직위는 ?
___ ① 일반사원 ___ ② 대리 ___ ③ 과장 ___ ④ 차장 ___ ⑤ 부장이상
5. 귀하의 고용형태는? ___ ① 정규직 ___ ② 비정규직(계약직, 인턴사원)
6. 귀하의 현재 직장생활 경력은? (만) _____ 년 _____ 개월
7. 귀하의 총 직장생활 경험은? (만) _____ 년 _____ 개월
8. 귀하의 직장생활 중 이직 횟수는? _____ 회

바쁘신 가운데 끝까지 응답해 주셔서 대단히 감사합니다

[Appendix 3] Instrument Translation (Perceived Employability)

Rothwell & Arnorld (2007)	1차 번안	2차 번안
1. Even if there was downsizing in this organization I am confident that I would be retained.	1. 회사가 구조조정을 하더라도 나는 그 대상에 포함되지 않을 것이라 확신한다.	1. 회사가 구조조정을 하더라도 나는 그 대상에 포함되지 않을 것이라 확신한다.
2. My personal networks in this organisation help me in my career.	2. 회사 내에서 형성한 개인적 네트워크는 나의 경력에 도움이 된다.	2. 회사 내에서 형성한 개인적 네트워크는 나의 경력에 도움이 된다.
3. I am aware of the opportunities arising in this organisation even if they are different to what I do now.	3. 현재 내가 하고 있는 업무와는 다른 성격의 것이라 하더라도 회사 내의 새로운 기회들에 대해 알고 있다.	3. 현재 내가 하고 있는 업무와는 다른 성격의 것이라 하더라도 회사 내의 새로운 (업무) 기회들에 대해 알고 있다.
4. The skills I have gained in my present job are transferable to other occupations outside this organisation.	4. 현 직장에서의 습득한 기술은 회사 밖 다른 직종에서도 활용 가능하다.	4. 현 직장에서의 습득한 기술은 회사 밖 다른 직종에서도 활용 가능하다.
5. I could easily retrain to make myself more employable elsewhere.	5. 다른 곳에서의 취업 가능성을 높이기 위해 재교육을 받을 의사가 있다.	5. 다른 곳에서의 취업 가능성을 높이기 위해 재교육을 받을 의사가 있다.
6. I have a good knowledge of opportunities for me outside of this organisation even if they are quite different to what I do now.	6. 현재 내가 하고 있는 일과 다른 것이라도 회사 밖에서의 기회에 대해 잘 알고 있다	6. 현재 내가 하고 있는 일과 다른 것이라도 회사 밖에서의 나를 위한 기회에 대해 잘 알고 있다
7. Among the people who do the same job as me, I am well respected in this organisation.	7. 회사 내에서 동일한 업무를 하는 사람들 사이에서 나는 꽤 인정받고 있다.	7. 회사 내에서 같은 일을 하는 사람들 사이에서 나는 꽤 인정을 받고 있다.
8. If I needed to, I could easily get another job like mine in a similar organisation.	8. 만약에 필요하다면 현재의 회사와 비슷한 다른 회사로 쉽게 이직을 할 수 있다.	8. 만약에 필요하다면 현재의 회사와 비슷한 다른 회사로 쉽게 이직을 할 수 있다.
9. I could easily get a similar job to mine in almost any organisation.	9. 나는 어떤 회사에서든 현재와 유사한 직장을 쉽게 구할 수 있다.	9. 나는 어떤 회사에서든 현재와 유사한 직장을 쉽게 구할 수 있다.

Rothwell & Arnorld (2007)	1차 번안	2차 번안
10. Anyone with my level of skills and knowledge, and similar job and organisational experience, will be highly sought after by employers.	10. 나와 비슷한 수준의 기술, 지식 및 직업과 업무경험을 가진 사람을 구하는 고용주들이 많을 것이다.	10. 나와 비슷한 수준의 기술, 지식, 그리고 직업 및 직장 경험을 가진 사람을 구하는 고용주들이 많을 것이다.
11. I could get any job, anywhere, so long as my skills and experience were reasonably relevant.	11. 내가 보유한 기술 및 경험과 적절한 관련성이 있는 곳이라면, 나는 어디에든 취직할 수 있을 것이다.	11. 내가 보유한 기술 및 경험과 관련성이 있는 곳이라면, 나는 어디에든 취직할 수 있을 것이다.

[Appendix 4] Instrument translation (Social Network Capital)

Eby et al. (2003)	1차 번안	2차 번안
1. Co-workers say that I know a lot of people within the organization	1. 동료들은 내가 회사 내 아는 사람이 많다고 생각한다.	모두 동일
2. I am well connected within the organization	2. 나는 회사 내에서 알고 지내는 사람이 많다.	
3. I have a lot of contacts within the organization	3. 나는 회사 내 폭넓은 인간관계를 유지하고 있다.	
4. I have extensive contacts within the industry in which I work	4. 나는 내가 일하는 산업분야에서 넓은 인간관계를 유지하고 있다.	
5. Co-workers say that I know a lot of people outside the organization	5. 동료들은 내가 회사 밖의 사람들도 많이 알고 있다고 생각한다.	
6. I regularly network with individuals outside of my organization	6. 정기적으로 회사 밖의 사람들과 모임을 갖는다.	
7. I do not have many professional contacts	7. 나의 직업과 관련된 인맥이 넓지 않다.	

[Appendix 5] Instrument Translation (Supervisor Feedback)

Steelman et al. (2004)	1차 번안	2차 번안
1. My supervisor gives me useful feedback about my job performance.	1. 상사는 내가 수행하는 직무에 대해 유용한 피드백을 준다.	1. 상사는 내가 수행하는 직무에 대해 유용한 피드백을 준다.
2. The performance feedback I receive from my supervisor is helpful	2. 내가 수행한 직무성공에 대한 상사의 피드백은 유용하다.	2. 내가 수행한 직무성공에 대한 상사의 피드백은 유용하다.
3. I value the feedback I receive from my supervisor.	3. 상사로부터 받는 피드백은 가치 있다고 생각한다.	3. 나는 상사의 피드백이 가치 있다고 생각한다
4. The feedback I receive from my supervisor helps me do my job.	4. 상사로부터 받는 피드백은 업무를 수행하는데 도움이 된다.	4. 상사의 피드백은 업무하는 데 도움이 된다.
5. The performance information I receive from my supervisor is generally not very meaningful.	5. 상사로부터 받는 업무 수행과 관련된 정보는 별 의미가 없다고 생각한다.	5. 상사가 준 업무수행관련 정보는 대체로 별 의미가 없는 것들이다.

[Appendix 6] Instrument Translation (Organizational Career Management)

Sturges et al. (2000)	1차 번안	
1. I have been given training to help develop my career.	1. 회사에서 나의 경력 개발에 도움이 되는 훈련을 받아왔다.	1. 회사에서 나의 경력 개발에 도움이 되는 훈련을 받아왔다.
2. My boss has made sure I get the training I need for my career.	2. 상사는 나의 경력에 필요한 훈련을 받을 수 있도록 힘써왔다.	2. 상사는 나의 경력에 필요한 훈련을 받을 수 있도록 힘써왔다.
3. I have been taught things I need to know to get on in this organization.	3. 회사에서 업무를 하는데 필요한 내용에 대해 지도를 받아왔다.	3. 회사에서 업무를 하는데 필요한 내용에 대해 지도를 받아왔다.
4. I have been given a personal development plan	4. 회사는 개인의 발전계획(personal development plan)을 제시해 주었다.	4. 회사는 나에게 개인발전계획(personal development plan)을 제시해 주었다.
5. I have been given work that has developed my skills for the future	5. 장래에 필요한 기술을 개발할 수 있는 업무를 받아왔다.	5. 장래에 필요한 기술을 개발할 수 있는 업무를 받아왔다.
6. My boss has given me clear feedback on my performance.	6. 나의 상사는 나의 성과에 대한 명확한 피드백을 주었다.	6. 상사는 나의 성과에 대한 명확한 피드백을 주었다.
7. I have been given impartial career advice when I needed it.	7. 내가 필요할 때, 나의 경력에 관한 객관적인 조언을 받아왔다.	7. 내가 필요할 때, 나의 경력에 관한 객관적인 조언을 받아왔다.
8. I have been introduced to people at work who are prepared to help me develop my career.	8. 나의 경력개발에 도움을 줄 수 있는 사람들을 회사 내에서 소개 받아왔다.	8. 나의 경력개발에 도움을 줄 수 있는 사람들을 회사 내에서 소개 받아왔다.
9. I have been given a mentor to help my career development.	9. 회사는 나의 경력개발을 도와줄 수 있는 멘토를 소개 해주었다.	9. 회사는 나의 경력개발을 도와줄 수 있는 멘토를 소개 해주었다.
10. My boss has introduced me to people who will help my career.	10. 상사는 나의 경력에 도움을 줄 수 있는 사람들을 소개 해주었다.	10. 상사는 나의 경력에 도움을 줄 수 있는 사람들을 소개 해주었다.

국문 초록

대기업 사무직 근로자의 고용가능성과 개인 및 조직 수준 변인의 위계적 관계

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서울대학교 대학원, 2016년
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이 연구의 목적은 우리나라 대기업 사무직 근로자의 고용가능성과 개인 및 조직 수준 변인의 위계적 관계를 구명하는 데 있다. 연구의 목적을 달성하기 위해 첫째, 대기업 사무직 근로자의 고용가능성에 대한 개인 수준 및 조직 수준의 변량을 구명하였고, 둘째, 개인 특성이 고용가능성에 미치는 효과를 구명하였으며, 셋째, 조직 특성이 고용가능성에 미치는 효과를 구명하였고, 넷째, 개인 특성과 조직 특성 간의 상호작용이 고용가능성에 미치는 효과를 구명하였다.

이 연구의 조사도구는 고용가능성과 개인 수준 변인의 경우 인구통계학적 특성, 직업 경험 관련 특성과 긍정심리자본, 사회 네트워크 자본, 주도적 성격 및 직장 내 변화 수용성으로 구성되고, 조직 수준 변인의 경우 경력관리지원, 상사의 피드백 및 인사관리 공정성으로 구성된 설문지를 활용하였다. 예비조사와 본조사에서 전체 조사도구의 신뢰도가 양호한 것으로 나타났다.

자료 수집은 2015년 11월1일부터 11월19일까지 실시하였다. 32개의 기업에 640부의 설문지를 배포하여 32개의 기업으로부터 618부를 회수하였다(회수율 96.6%). 회수된 설문지 중 불성실 응답, 중복응답, 미응답 자료를 제외하여 최종 분석에 총 522부의 자료를 활용하였다(유효응답률 84.5%). 자료 분석은 SPSS for Windows 21.0 프로그램과 HLM 6.0 for Windows 프로그램을 이용하여 기술통계(평균, 표준편차), 독립표본

t-검증, 일원배치분산분석(One-way ANOVA), 위계적 선형 모형 분석(HLM)을 실시하였다.

연구결과를 요약하면, 첫째, 대기업 사무직 근로자의 고용가능성 수준은 평균 3.59으로 보통보다 약간 높은 수준으로 나타났으며 이는 대기업 사무직 근로자들이 인식하는 노동시장에서의 경쟁력이 다소 높은 것으로 판단될 수 있다. 둘째, 여성보다는 남성이, 대학원 이상 학위 소지자, 50세 이상 근로자, 차장, 정규직 근로자, 근속년수가 11년에서 15년 사이인 근로자, 총 경력이 11년에서 15년 사이인 근로자가 고용가능성을 보다 높게 인식하는 것으로 나타났으며 이러한 결과와 관련하여 대기업의 특성과 다양한 사회적 현상들과 연결하여 대기업 사무직 근로자들의 고용수준을 이해할 필요가 있음을 확인하였다. 셋째, 대기업 사무직 근로자의 고용가능성이 조직수준에서도 유의미한 차이가 발생하는 것으로 나타남에 따라 일반적으로 개인수준에서만 주로 다루어졌던 고용가능성을 설명하는 데 있어 조직수준 요인도 고려할 필요가 있으며 조직의 역할을 밝힐 필요가 있음을 시사한다. 넷째, 조직 수준의 변인이 개인의 고용가능성 수준에 직접적으로 영향을 미치고 상호작용을 통해 간접적으로도 영향을 미치는 것으로 나타남에 따라 조직이 근로자들의 고용가능성을 높이기 위해 취할 수 있는 조치와 근로자들의 이러한 경쟁력 강화가 어떠한 긍정적인 결과로 연결될 수 있는지에 대한 검토의 필요성을 재확인할 수 있었다.

이 연구의 결과에 따른 후속 연구 및 고용가능성 강화를 위한 제언은 다음과 같다. 첫째, 이 연구에서 선정한 변인들 외에 중요하게 고려해볼 수 있는 조직 수준 요인들에 대한 고민을 하는 등 조직 수준의 변인을 추가하여 확장된 연구를 통해 조직의 역할을 보다 명확하게 규명해볼 필요가 있다. 둘째, 표집에 있어 대상을 대기업 전체가 아닌 대기업 내 동일 부서 또는 팀의 단위로 설정하여 조직 수준 특성과 관련하여 동일 집단 소속 응답자들의 동질성을 확보할 수 있도록 연구의 초점을 보다 구체화하여 진행해볼 필요가 있다. 셋째, 고용가능성을 일-환경 적합성, 직무 만족, 조직몰입 등 직무 현장에서 나타나는 다른 주요 태도 및 행동과 연결하여 살펴볼 필요가 있다. 넷째, 고용가능성을 경력과 관련된 태도 및 행동 등과 연결하여 연구를 진행함으로써 관련된 개념적 접근 및 고민의 깊이를 더하는 등 관련 연구의 발전에 기여하기 위한 노력이 필요하다. 다섯째, 이 연구에서 높은 고용가능성 평균 점수를 보인 집단 또는 반대로 낮은 수준을 보인 집단들을 대상으로 연구를 한정하고 직접적으로 관련된 변인들을 선정하여 연구를 진행하는 등 사회적으로 의미 있는 다양한 시사점

을 도출할 수 있도록 특정 집단 선정(퇴직을 앞둔 근로자, 여성 근로자, 신입사원 등) 및 구체적인 모형 설정 등을 시도해볼 필요가 있다.

주요어: 고용가능성, 위계적 선형모형 분석(HLM), 대기업, 사무직 근로자

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